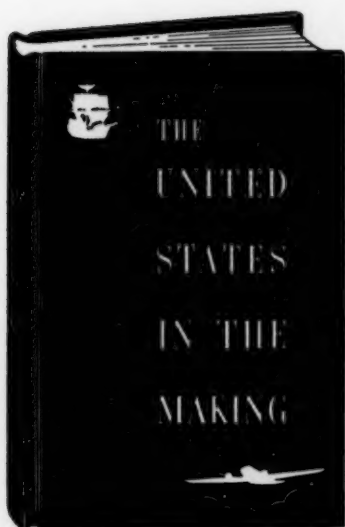


SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

CAN WE RESOLVE OUR DIFFERENCES?

TOTALITARIAN influences are seen everywhere in the contemporary world, from the outright fascism and communism abroad to the "new liberalism" in politics and economics at home; and warning voices are being raised against further extension here of such influences, with consequent loss of initiative and variety.

Has this tendency toward enforced uniformity been reflected in the United States in educational affairs? Very little, apparently, beyond scattered efforts towards requiring teachers' oaths, excluding certain "subversive" teachings, and possibly advancing movements in vocational training. It is unthinkable, for a number of reasons, that such a situation might develop here as that headed by a certain minister of education who once boasted that he could sit in his office at any given hour of the day and know exactly what every child in the country was studying at that particular moment. It is not necessary for the purposes of this discussion to review the factors which have kept education decentralized in the United States, but suffice it to say that we have tried to preserve two values inherent in diversification: first, freedom to grow, to experiment, to adapt and adjust to local requirements; and second, challenge to the initiative and resourcefulness of every member of the teaching staff, with a consequent pooling of all intellectual resources. These things, we are convinced, are good in themselves, and we are determined to preserve them.

We Americans, however, have the bad habit of going to extremes, in our virtues and vices alike. Thus our very virtues may become vices. In our search for individuality we often refuse to accept contributions from the experience of others. In our fear of conformity we often welcome what is different without due regard to its validity. That the resulting curricula are chaotic in the extreme can be ascertained by any one who takes the trouble to make even a superficial examination of the courses of study, materials for children, and periodical literature of the last fifteen years.

Moreover, because of our active crusading spirit, our schools tend to be carried away by the very educational experiments which they are undertaking—supposedly in the scientific spirit of ascertaining the truth. Each staff of workers tends to identify itself with the theories, materials, or procedures that it is investigating; and it therefore tends to justify and rationalize what is being done. Criticism is received by the staff as if aimed at each member as an individual rather than at the experiments or investigations. Therefore criticism is resented. Objectivity and impersonality are hard to maintain.

In order to justify its own position, each group, instead of focusing attention on results, tends to belabor those who are investigating in different directions; each damns the opposition by hurling epithets: "traditional," "conservative," "faddish," or "progressive." The efforts which one's own group puts forth are called "construct-

ing functional curricula"; those of the opposition are termed "tinkering." In consequence, educational organizations are split into rival groups with duplication of effort, expenditure, journals, meetings, and officials. Vested interests naturally perpetuate the existing confusion. Teachers may remember that similar splits have been fatal to American political parties, but they view with equanimity such movements as the establishment of so disparate, not to say warring, national organizations as the National Education Association and the Progressive Education Association.

THE consequences of such guerrilla warfare within the ranks of educators have been disastrous, viewed from both without and within. The general public, bombarded by conflicting claims and amazed at the sharpness of the criticism which rival groups have been hurling at one another, has not only become confused but has acquired a profound distrust of both sides.

The effect upon the teaching force has been as bad or worse. Young teachers have been distracted upon hearing conflicting dicta from the major prophets and upon being urged, at the various professional meetings which they attend, toward directly contradictory practices. Their sharp cry of need is, "What are we to do when the doctors disagree?" Older teachers, who have weathered cycles of successive change, are no longer distressed; they are more likely to have descended into a dark skepticism and cynicism toward all efforts at improvement. It is high time, then, that the whole educational world of these United States cease quarreling, at least long enough to appraise the situation and to evaluate their agreements as well as their disagreements.

Many of the disagreements are on such relatively minor points as whether the understandings should grow out of the activities. Other disagreements are rather matters of terminology than of content, as, for example "units of understanding"

versus "units of experience." Observers sitting for protracted periods in classrooms whose teachers profess wholly different pedagogical allegiance are often unable to see evidences of such difference in the actual classroom practices. Might it not be possible that more frequent joint meetings in which the opposing wings would participate, with more consideration given in our sessions to what could be agreed upon as fundamental, would be valuable to all? After a long period during which the chief emphasis in American education has been placed on our diversities, perhaps the historical cycle has been completed, and we may now be ready to enter upon a period for emphasizing our unity.

THIS discussion, however, should not be construed as an attempt to reduce all matters at issue between contending groups to the level of "minor disagreements." Major and marked differences also exist, at least in theory. Can anything be done about such matters?

From a practical point of view, as opposed to that of an all-inclusive ideology, it usually seems true that when large groups continue to differ violently over a long period of years, and neither is able to convince or convert the other, truth is likely to be found on both sides. The "either-or" attitude has been the bane of our educational system for years. It has perhaps helped to clarify the issues, but it has led us into the impasse described above. Is the remedy, then, to embrace the totalitarian spirit, to determine by majority vote what is to be done, and to enforce conformity by pressure methods? That may be the solution in a dictatorship, but other methods are at least possible in a democracy. We might try them before we either concede that nothing can be done and thus continue to drift along at cross-purposes, or before we enforce a common pattern by the well known fascist methods.

One thing we might do, it seems, is to appoint conference committees from the

opposing wings of thought, charged first with the duty of lining up agreements and disagreements, and then of identifying and separating major from minor issues in the list of disagreements. Those major issues might be subjected to experimentation and investigation, with the two sides agreeing in advance as to the types of evidence they would accept. While the investigations were being carried on, we might well cease trying to convert one another by merely haranguing. (The number of articles in our professional journals that could properly be classified as "harangue" is a bit overwhelming.)

DOES this suggestion amount to declaring a moratorium on progress in education or a holiday for science? By no means! Under the plan outlined, experimentation and investigation would be carried on much more vigorously than during the last few years, when the scientific movement has seemed about to die peacefully in its sleep. The proposal is merely that the rest of us, who are not actively engaged in prosecuting some part of the experiments involved, might more profitably turn our efforts towards solving problems connected with the issues on which a degree of agreement has been reached, rather than continuing to belabor our opponents and to magnify our fringe of differences.

IS the foregoing a counsel of perfection? Any realistic conception of large-group action must recognize that the unity achieved will be a unity of action only—not of belief. The minority will still disagree vehemently on certain phases, and in a democratic society will always possess the right of trying to change the view of the majority. We will always think one another slightly crazy. The right of revolution also is specifically conceded; but in an intelligent democracy it should rarely need to be exercised. The argument advanced in these suggestions is not that the majority should silence the minority. It is (1)

that the various schools of thought analyze the situation in order to find out the phases on which they agree; (2) that they devote the energy of the rank and file to the solution of problems connected with the phases of agreement; (3) that the matters on which there is violent disagreement be subjected to rigorous scientific investigation; and (4) that judgment in those matters be suspended until the findings are known. Meanwhile each group will pursue its own investigations but will not be quite so deadsure-in-advance as to what the outcomes are to be.

IN order to introduce at least one specific recommendation into this highly speculative account of what might be done, let me mention an example which might be classed under the head of "agreements," since almost everybody accepts it. At least, when the specialists in reading, language, art, and social studies agree on a point, and the followers of progressive education maintain that they have always accepted the same principle, it seems safe to state that almost everybody can rally around it. The example chosen is the proposal that much of the elementary school reading, language, and art be integrated with the social studies (history and geography either together or separately). We have been talking about that proposal for a long time but there are still enough unsolved problems connected with it to engage our united efforts for years to come.

Any one who fears that the adoption of these suggestions would result in too much uniformity and standardization can never have been a member of a school staff or have attended meetings of professional associations. All that can reasonably even be hoped for is a long overdue weighing of the balances at least slightly in favor of unity as opposed to diversity, in the attempt to arrive finally at the ideal of diversification within unity.

MARY G. KELTY

Chicago, Illinois

SNOW WHITE

THIS plan to teach the story of mankind chronologically within topics may go to any lengths. "You get about the same results," some one has said, "by going over the ground several different times, each time tracing a particular line of development. Furthermore, the topical method is more logical, develops new relationships, and makes learning easier and more effective." Yet if this fad spreads to other fields, we may have all kinds of strange results. Here is an example of what might be done with the familiar tale of Snow White, currently presented in a quite different way by Mr Walt Disney.

TOPIC I

ONCE upon a time a beautiful young queen sat watching the snowflakes outside her window. "How I wish I had a little daughter," she thought. Just then she pricked her finger and a drop of bright red blood fell upon the fine linen she was sewing. "If my little girl had lips as red as blood, skin as white as snow, and her hair as black as my ebony embroidery frame, how lovely she would be!"

The next spring the young queen had just such a beautiful daughter, but the young queen died and Princess Snow White was very lonely. Her father was very busy being a king and had little time for her. He married another woman, but she was an unkind stepmother. Snow White had to work hard scrubbing the palace floors, and she had to wear old clothes. One day, however, she met the handsome prince of her dreams. Soon after that, the chief huntsman took her into the forest and drew a knife as though about to kill her but let her go.

She was afraid in the great forest, but the little wood creatures took care of her and showed her the home of seven little dwarfs. These dwarfs were unfriendly at first, but, as she worked for them and

treated them well, they became very fond of her. She stayed with them very happily until an old hag whom she had kindly taken in gave her a poisoned apple. When she bit into this apple, she fell into a deep sleep from which she did not awaken until she was kissed by the handsome prince. Then she rode away with him, living happily ever after and returning to see the dwarfs every spring.

TOPIC II

THERE was once a vain wicked woman who married a king. She was not kind to the little princess, whose mother was dead, but made her work hard and wear old clothes. The wicked queen dressed herself in beautiful clothes and asked her magic mirror who was the fairest in the land. When she was not named, she had the huntsman kill her rival. One day the mirror said that Snow White was the fairest in the land. This made the queen very angry, and she ordered the chief huntsman to take the girl out into the forest and return with her heart in a little jeweled box.

When he came back she was very happy until she asked the mirror once more who was the fairest in the land, and the mirror again named Snow White. She knew then that she had been cheated, and she was so angry that she broke the magic mirror. Then she set about making a poison with which she could destroy Snow White.

First she changed herself into an old hag. Then she made an evil brew and into it dipped an apple. Taking this apple she set out into the forest. At last she came to the little house where Snow White was staying. Although the wise little wood creatures tried to force her away, Snow White kindly invited her in. She gave Snow White the poisoned apple which she ate and fell into a deep sleep like death. The dwarfs with whom Snow White lived returned and found her lying as though dead. They chased the wicked hag, and she fell from a cliff and died.

TOPIC III

THERE was once a handsome young prince who dreamed that he would some day find a fair princess, and he did. She was dressed in rags, but he knew her at once by her sweet face. He bowed and kissed her little hand. She blushed and ran away, but she threw him a flower as she ran.

For a long time after that the prince sought to find his beautiful princess and could not. He found out that she was a real princess and that her cruel stepmother had made her work hard and that the princess was no longer in the palace. The bad queen herself told him that the princess had run away.

One day he heard of a fair maiden who slept in a glass coffin, and he traveled far to see if it was she. When he found the glass coffin he knew that it was his princess who lay within, but he did not know whether she was dead or not. He kissed her, and the evil spell was broken. The prince put her on his white horse, and they rode away happily.

TOPIC IV

WITHIN a deep forest dwelt seven little dwarfs. Each day for hundreds of years they went out to dig gold and jewels from mines deep down under a big mountain, and at night they returned to their untidy little hut in the woods. One night when they reached the little house they found that some one had made a fire in it. When they got nearer they saw that the cobwebs and dust were gone. Then they saw that the dirty dishes were gone from the sink and feared they had been stolen but found them, clean, in the cupboard. There were flowers in a vase, too. They were afraid to go upstairs where their strange visitor must be hiding. At last they dared to go, and they found a fair princess lying across their beds. She seemed very large to them. They did not want her there at first, but, as she fed them and helped them and promised to make them pie, they let her stay. In fact they washed themselves

to please her, they danced and played with her, they gave her their beds while they slept on the floor, and they made her a beautiful bed with her name on it, Snow White.

While they were working on the bed, the little wood creatures came suddenly and tugged at them until they went back to their hut. Here they found an old hag running away. They chased her through the woods and up a high cliff. As they climbed after her, she lost her balance and fell dead upon the bottom of the chasm.

Back in their little hut they found Snow White on the floor. They did not know whether she was dead or asleep. They could not revive her so they made a coffin of crystal and gold and put her in that. They carried this out into the forest and kept watch over it all winter long.

In the spring they saw a handsome young prince come on a prancing horse. He kissed Snow White, and she awoke. They were very happy to see that she was not dead. Then the prince took her up on his horse and they were sad to lose so good a friend, but she promised to come back to see them each spring.

* * * *

ALTHOUGH it is true that I have omitted the topic of the wood creatures and the topic of the chief huntsman, nevertheless, I doubt whether that fact alone accounts for the effect of this way of telling the familiar tale, so entirely different from that of the fairy tale which has entranced generations of children or of the moving picture which is at present sweeping the country. In fact it seems to me that the topical treatment necessarily misses the interplay that is life itself.

JENNIE L. PINGREY

WORKBOOKS

MECHANICAL exercises, "busy work," and futile copying are condemned with some sharpness by R. M. Tryon in "The Development and Appraisal of Workbooks in the Social Sciences," a fifteen-page

article in *The School Review* for January. Although the great number—over two hundred—of such publications for social studies classes have appeared during the past ten years, Professor Tryon traces their origins back to outlines, which became popular in the 1890's, and to outline map books and map exercise books, which began to appear in the first decade of this century. In fact, he finds the workbooks of the 1920's "reactionary rather than progressive," even though three educational reform movements accounted in part for their increased popularity: supervised study, the individualization of study, and the abolition of the traditional recitation. As usual, specific objectives were multiplied; Dr Tryon notes that the workbooks claimed to:

stimulate pupils to self-activity, teach pupils to study effectively, give pupils something to do other than reading and reciting, give pupils close contact with reality, provide definite and worth-while enterprises that will enable pupils effectively to utilize the material lying about them, tell pupils where to find material for study, assist pupils in getting hold of the essential facts of the subject, supply teachers with devices to check the progress made by pupils, relieve teachers of the burdens of assignment-making, present various devices for the fixation of knowledge and for the testing of achievement, provide references of such a character that avenues of approach to interesting illustrative material may be available, furnish material for additional inquiry by pupils of varying grades of ability, and aid pupils in the organization and the interpretation of the significant facts of the subjects.

Of the actual attainment of these objectives Dr Tryon is skeptical. In checking with teachers he found some favorable opinions but also many adverse. Teachers pointed out, for example,

the failure of workbooks to rise above formal busy-work; their narrow, limited, fixed, and stereotyped character; their failure to meet the needs of individual classes; the job-to-be-done attitude which they foster; their tendency to reduce teaching to mere routine, to encourage copying, to deprive pupils of opportunities for independent thinking, and to act as a substitute for teacher planning.

Admittedly many social-studies teachers

are inadequately trained. A large number have too many pupils, too many classes, too many preparations, too many clerical and extracurricular responsibilities. For these the ready-made organizations of workbooks are a convenience, but it is more than doubtful that the "tests, references, outline maps, previews, outlines, and . . . filling in exercises" which, as Dr Tryon finds, fill most of the workbooks, can provide vital, stimulating, or effective instruction. There is, then, substantial basis for Dr Tryon's recommendation that the workbooks movement may well be allowed to "commit suicide immediately." His positive recommendation is that teachers construct their own guide sheets, or work sheets, and tests, adapting them to the needs of the immediate situation. It might be suggested also that new types of exercises could well be developed, giving attention to some of the skills and working out some of the activities that have recently been stressed.

Dr Tryon's article has one implication of some importance. If makers of workbooks have been lacking in imagination and unresponsive to many recent developments in education, and if teachers have been lacking in initiative and satisfied merely to teach facts, both the fault and the remedy lie in part with administrators. With the aid of a text and workbooks a teacher can supervise the temporary learning of many facts. For the teaching of civilization and society, however, background, wide contacts with life, time for reading and study, time for working with individuals and small groups is required. Smaller classes, fewer preparations, better library and workroom facilities, and sympathetic cooperation must be provided by superintendents and principals before the unhealthy condition of which reliance on workbooks is only a symptom can be corrected.

E.M.H.

"The Industrial Revolution"

HERBERT HEATON

THE Editor's letter asked for an article on the industrial revolution, "with the view to bringing teachers up to date on newer scholarship and interpretations." So I spent the morning of Thanksgiving Day examining several recent high school or university history or social science texts to see how they handled economic developments. I soon found I had a new reason for being thankful. One *History of Europe* gives 102 pages out of 845 to economic conditions and trends, and another gives 136 pages out of 1024. This is a mighty advance since the 'eighties, when Fyffe wrote over a thousand pages and never mentioned a machine or a railroad. It is even better than conditions were thirty years ago, when the *Cambridge Modern History* included only three economic chapters in its fourteen volumes. The "Manor," the "Commercial Revolution," "Mercantilism," and

the "Industrial Revolution" have definitely been admitted to the texts. My daughter tells me she has heard the manor described in five different lecture courses, and I notice that in her prescribed books the famous plan of a "typical manor" has been improved: a stork stands forlornly in the swamp, and the landlord is hunting a deer and a boar—simultaneously—in the Woodland.

This flush of gratitude for the many crumbs that are now falling from the general historian's table is, however, tempered a little by the staleness of some of the crumbs. Even the best of the university texts have provoked me to make several query marks in the margin; and some of the high school books ought to have whole paragraphs or even pages torn out. A teacher who said that the Roman Empire fell in 476, that the renaissance began when a Greek scholar migrated from Constantinople to Florence in 1397, that the American Constitution was a popular document, or that Germany was solely responsible for the World War would be accused of being old fashioned. Yet that is what often happens when general surveyors or writers of historical introductions to social science deal with economic history. This is inevitable, for the subject is being overhauled by higher criticism of the contents and the ideas of the founding fathers. Those men began their serious study only about sixty years ago and did a grand job with the limited data at their disposal. The second generation, working with a vastly enlarged mass of material, has revised or scrapped

Since scholars first became aware of the far reaching effects of the development of machinery in modern life, there has come to light a good deal of new knowledge of events and new interpretation of meaning and importance. The crux of all this is set forth here by a professor of economic history at the University of Minnesota. We expect to print in the near future a similar article on the continuing influence of the French Revolution in the modern world.

some of the pioneers' conclusions, and the third generation is now knocking at the door, or rather knocking some doors down. Almost every issue of the special periodicals forces us to change an opinion or an emphasis; the subject is as living, as exciting, as contemporary physics. But the task of keeping up with the bright young people on the research front line is hard on the heart and lungs of those of us who are over forty. It is even more strenuous for those who wish to be well informed academic general practitioners.

SUCH higher criticism has been devastating in two fields well known to history teachers. These are the "Manor" and the "Industrial Revolution." Of the "Manor" there is room here only to say that anyone who thinks he has done justice to the medieval countryside when he has described the manorial system is almost as wrong as he would be if he passed off a picture of a slave plantation as an adequate account of the American countryside. Of the "Industrial Revolution," the sharp lines and strong colors—chiefly rose and black—of the old picture have become so blurred that some of us now put the title in quotation marks or avoid using it.

That old picture, painted about 1880 by Arnold Toynbee, is a triptych, or a melodrama in three acts. First there is "The Eve," still, placid, quiet, at the end of a long day that reaches back to the Normans, Nero, or even Noah. The methods of agriculture, industry, and transportation have changed little in a thousand years. Production is carried on by small manufacturers or farmers. The former, like the latter, live in the country, combine industry and agriculture, and supplement the family labor supply by training an apprentice and perhaps employing a journeyman or two. The wage earner usually works, aided by his family, in his own home on materials put out to him by his employer; but he may work under his master's roof. Between master and man is a "warm attachment";

they call each other by their Christian nicknames. The class of capitalist employers is still "in its infancy"; some merchant-employers put out material to be processed in the homes of their employees or of small masters, and a few factories or central workshops exist. But in general the family firm and the family farm prevail. Division of class and of labor is slight. The worker can express his personality in his work, though what happens if it is crooked is not clear. Production is for local markets or for the producer's larder and wardrobe, since defective means of transportation and mercantilistic policies shut off distant consumers. No one earns great rewards, but the domestic system insures on the whole a sound and healthy life under conditions favorable to the development of mind, body, and personal dignity. Contentment spins at the cottage door; there is plenty of honeysuckle, ivy, and good ale in this "quiet world" of "scarcely perceptible movement." A comprehensive code of state regulation of production and trade combines with technical inertia to prevent anything from changing.

Then, with a rapidity known in the tropics, "The Night" falls, a night full of noise and action. Seven men—four Lancashire men (Kay, Hargreaves, Arkwright, and Crompton), two Scots (Adam Smith and James Watt), and one Episcopalian parson (Cartwright)—invent some textile machines, improve the steam engine, or write *The Wealth of Nations*. Meanwhile other men revolutionize agriculture and redraw the village map, while others improve roads and rivers or cut canals. But it is the seven men who get their names on the record, for their actions or thoughts "destroyed the old world and built a new one." And what they did was crowded into a brief night that lasted from about 1760 to 1780.

Act Three is "The Murky Dawn," in which the effects become visible. It is a period of "economic revolution and anarchy," as machinery and steam overrun industry, and Smith's plea for *laissez faire* sweeps the statute book clear of the mer-

cantilistic devil. Population is "torn up by the roots" and dragged "from cottages in distant valleys into factories and cities"; independent farmers, expelled from their lands and impoverished by the extension of sheep raising and the inclosure movement, join the small manufacturing master or journeymen in this rural exodus. In the towns a landless propertyless proletariat is the victim of the seven deadly sins of unrestrained inhuman industrial capitalists. The sins are the factory system, long hours, child labor, the exploitation of women, low wages, periodical or chronic unemployment, and slums. If the victims dislike the contrast between their deplorable lot and the fortunes made by fat factory owners; if they object, riot, join labor unions, or become chartists or socialists, they are shot down, put in jail, or sent to Botany Bay. Their economic masters become their political lords by displacing the landowners in the seats of government, and then legislate—or refuse to do so—with one eye on the cash-box and the other on some page of Smith, Ricardo, or Malthus. A dreary, tragic, selfish, sordid dawn! But by lunch time the weather is improving. The exploited grow class-conscious and organized, some employers grow softhearted, laws are passed to permit unions, to regulate child labor, or to provide a better water supply. Mass production makes goods cheaper, the corn laws are repealed, Victoria becomes queen, Albert the Good builds the Crystal Palace, and by the time it is opened in 1851 the grim tragedy is promising to turn into whatever the urban counterpart of a pastoral should be called.

THIS story has got into the general books, and the title for it has become so widely accepted that some wit has said all college courses now begin with the amoeba, Aristotle, or the industrial revolution. That is—all courses except those given by the economic historian, for he is getting more and more suspicious of the name and of the crisp dramatic conception. In the great university

schools of economic history, Manchester admits that the name was useful when first adopted but thinks it has now served its turn and can scarcely be applied aptly to a movement which was in preparation for two centuries and then occupied at least one more. Oxford finds there is "no hiatus in economic development, but always a constant tide of progress and change, in which the old is blended almost imperceptibly with the new." Edinburgh chimes in with the remark that "sudden catastrophic change is inconsistent with the slow gradual process of human evolution." Harvard insists that the technological changes of the eighteenth century were "only the completion of tendencies which had been significantly evident since Leonardo da Vinci." Birmingham reinforces this by asserting that the developments between 1760 and 1830 "did but carry further, though on a far greater scale and with far greater rapidity, changes which had been proceeding long before." Cambridge finds the period presents a study in slow motion, and in London they tell the pass students there was an industrial revolution, but tell the honors students there never was any such thing.

These quotations give a composite picture of the revised view of the industrial revolution. Let me put it in three generalizations. (1) Steam and the textile machines did not break in on an almost unchanging world of smallscale slightly capitalistic enterprise. (2) The rate of technical change was *lento* rather than *allegro* for a long time; it took decades or even generations to transform old industries and build up new ones. (3) The social and economic "evils" were not new; they were not as black or as widespread as is usually asserted; their causes were often due to special or non-economic factors; and they were in no small measure offset by a substantial improvement in the real wages and living standards of a large part of the wage-earning population. Sentimental unhistorical hysteria is not a good approach to a problem, whether present or past, but it dominated much of

the discussion a hundred years ago and the description of a hundred years ago.

LET me elaborate these three contentions. In Toynbee's day little was known of sixteenth-century economic life, and little of any eighteenth-century industry except textiles. Now we know that during this period there were important changes in methods of production, and a quickening spirit of scientific inquiry and of inventive curiosity. New methods of extracting and refining metals were discovered; the preparation of silk yarn, the knitting of hose, the weaving of ribbons, the making of clocks, the finishing of cloth, all obtained new or improved equipment, as did shipbuilding, brewing, mining, sugar refining, and the manufacture of chemicals. The harnessing of wind, water, and animal power was made more efficient, and coal was used in increasing quantities by industries which needed heat. Professor Nef has shown that England had an industrial revolution between 1540 and 1640, and that the rate of technical change was possibly as striking during the age of Shakespeare as during that of Wordsworth or Byron. Holland, Sweden, France, and England alike contributed to technical progress, and by 1700 scientists, especially physicists, had learned enough to be able to answer some questions asked by industrialists. True, some industries or processes stood still, and spinning and weaving did not change much; but many were on the march.

At the same time the organization of production was changing. Small craftsmen did not have the capital necessary for some of the new equipment, or for bridging the long gap between buying raw material and getting paid for the finished article by a dilatory or distant customer. Hence where materials were costly or came from afar, where equipment was expensive, where the market was large or distant, the initiative had to be taken by merchants or large producers. Some of them bought the raw materials and put them out to be processed

by small masters or by wage earners. Sometimes they supplied the equipment as well and paid the master only for his labor, just as he in turn might pay wages to his journeymen. Some of them gathered workers in, because the material could not be put out. You could not put out coal mining, smelting, sugar refining, building, cloth finishing, shipbuilding, calico printing, or the making of glass, bricks, paper, leather, or gunpowder. As these industries grew, so did the number of persons working for wages in their employer's plant; and the combined expansion of putting out and gathering in had created a large propertyless proletariat long before 1760. It may be true that in 1640 the great majority of industrial workers "laboured in their homes, in town cellars or garrets, or in village cottages. But that majority was by no means so overwhelming as has been supposed" (Nef) and was declining rapidly before a flying shuttle flew or a spinning jenny was devised, even in Lancashire cotton production. Wherever men worked, many of them were wage earners.

If they were, their wages tended to be low; but so were all returns in an age of low productivity. Their hours were long—twelve or more a day—but so were those of their employers and of independent workers, since the rate of production was so slow. Their children and their wives had to work, for every scrap of labor was needed; but so did all children and wives, except those of the rich. Unemployment was frequent and severe, industrial diseases and accidents were common, living and working conditions were often dank, unhealthy, and malodorous, whether in town or village. Labor unions were formed, class conflicts occurred, and the state usually took the employers' side.

This sketch of the period before 1760 takes much of the melodrama out of the next seventy years. Some of the remainder disappears, when we examine the pace at which the textile machines and the improved steam engines were adopted. The cotton industry, which was the scene of the

famous inventions, has been used as a sample case. But it was not typical; various factors, such as the newness of the industry, the suitability of the cotton fiber for mechanical treatment, and the great market existing for cheap cotton cloth, prevent the story of cotton from being typical of the changes in industry at large. The transfer from domestic hand spinning of cotton to factory machine spinning was rapid—a matter of about twenty years. By 1815 "the power loom was entering into effective rivalry with the hand loom in the cotton industry, though another generation was to elapse before the battle was finally decided" (Redford, *post*, p. 20). But cotton was a lonely hare in an industrial world of tortoises. It loomed far less large in that world than it has done in the textbooks, for even in the 1830's the number of its employees was only two-thirds that of the number of female domestic servants.

WHEN we get our eyes off this exception, we find the pace of change in the rest of industry much more sedate. Wool spinning, on hand jennies instead of on wheels, was still being done in Yorkshire homes in 1850. Power looms had not seriously threatened the woollen hand weaver at that date; the transfer from hand to power weaving came quietly during the next twenty-five years, but even in 1877 I find one manufacturer contending that the old method was as cheap as the new. As for steam power, Watt had only 320 of his engines at work in England in 1800, and in 1830 a quarter of the power used by cotton mills was still drawn from water-wheels. Mining had no great technical change, but a series of little ones. Building remained a manual industry until the concrete mixer came. The pottery industry relied less on machinery than on other factors. Clothes making, glass blowing, and printing were late in getting mechanical equipment, while mechanical engineering only slowly developed the tools it needed for shaping metal parts cheaply and ac-

curately. In 1850 everything was not over except the shouting. Cheap steel, cheap lubricants, industrial chemistry, and cheap electricity were still to come. The railroad had won its battle, but the steamship was still fighting its sailing rival, even on the North Atlantic. Away from Lancashire and the railroad tracks, technical change between 1760 and 1850 had been gradual, slow, and unspectacular.

WHAT then of the social and economic consequences and of the seven deadly sins? In the first place, if we leave out one or two exceptional industries or areas, people were not torn loose from a rural life of pleasant and virtually independent enterprise and plunged almost overnight into the horrible existence of an urban factory slumdwelling proletariat. Many of them were already proletarian; many of them already lived in industrial towns which now grew large or in villages which grew into towns; and some of them already worked under the employer's roof. For them there was not much shift of habitat or of economic class. There was little mass migration, and little long distance movement, except by the Irish, who swarmed into England before they swarmed into North America, and who made many labor and urban problems much more acute than they would otherwise have been.

In the second place, before we beat our anger to white heat in describing the slums, the foul streets, the smoke-laden atmosphere, the lack of water or sanitation, the ravages of disease, etc., let us remember three controlling considerations. (a) Technical. Cheap bricks, cheap sewer or water pipes, and cheap house fixtures were not available till at least 1840, and knowledge concerning public health was still scanty. Compare conditions in the industrial towns with those of non-industrial communities or with rural housing facilities; then it is evident that the housing and sanitary shortcomings of the manufacturing districts were not wholly due to the new machinery

and the factory system. (b) Constitutional. Until 1835 no town government had adequate powers to cope with the new urban problems. (c) Economic. The provision of houses was never, until recent years, regarded as a public duty. It was left to private enterprise and the stimulus of investment or speculation. The potential builder considered whether his capital would yield a better return in houses than in the many other fields that were thirsty for capital; and the amount he put into a dwelling was limited by what the tenant could afford to pay. In one English town 76 per cent of the houses were rented at a dollar a week or less in 1839; the total capital outlay for one house could not be more than six hundred dollars. In view of the western world's housing impasse since 1914, we must speak more kindly of the builder who a century ago put a roof over the head of the poor, without the aid of mass-produced materials, machinery, or government subsidies.

In the third place, few of the factory working conditions were new. Not even the discipline of fixed hours of work was new to industries which had been conducted in central workshops. Night work may have been new, but long and late hours were not. The cruel treatment of some children by foremen was a personal matter; parents had not been free from it in the domestic workshop, and it was part of that streak of cruelty common in prisons, the army and navy, schools, and homes. The thing that was new and revolutionary was not the "evils," but the discovery that they were evils. For that we have to thank those employers who were heartless. We have to thank the factory for making noticeable in the mass what had been ignored in scattered small instances. We can thank on-lookers, whether lay or ecclesiastic, and even Tory politicians who saw in factory conditions a new whip with which to flog their Whig industrial opponents. Finally, much credit must go to those employers—and they were many—who treated their workers decently. These men belonged to

that growing army of humanitarians who cleaned up slavery, made the penal code less fierce, welcomed the attack on excessive drinking, pushed the cause of education, built hospitals, dispensaries, and charitable institutions, organized the relief of the unemployed in depressed days, established good working conditions, and fought for better factory laws and better town government.

ONE final comment may help us to understand better the years between 1760 and 1830. Twenty-six of those years (1789-1815) were dominated by the emotions and strain of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic war, and sixteen of them (1815-1830) were filled with the task of readjustment after a generation of war. The first period was torn by the fear of Jacobinism and the stress of war and famine. There could be little tolerance of mutterings of social discontent or of organized protest during those years; and there was little time to think of domestic problems. The second period we understand better because we have lived through a similar one. The legacies of war were high prices which collapsed, high interest rates and taxes which did not, a scarcity of houses, wide agrarian distress, a disarranged currency, a chaotic credit system, economic nationalism, choked trade channels, prohibitive tariffs, demobilized soldiers without jobs, and so forth. Much that has been blamed on the economic transition was not new, and much of the rest has to be put on the shoulders of the war. The remarkable thing is that by 1830 British opinion had got rid of most of its war phobias and was tackling its problems realistically and constructively by a combination of voluntary organization and state action. If anything was rapid and revolutionary in this whole period it was the change in outlook that between 1824 and 1835 removed the ban on labor organization, passed an effective factory act, reformed the poor law, lowered the tariff wall, made a hole in the naviga-

tion laws, remodelled urban government, reformed the House of Commons, liberated the slaves, emancipated Roman Catholics, fashioned a good banking system, and sowed the seeds of national education, trade unionism, and the cooperative movement.

Behind all this was the intense energy of manufacturers and merchants who, either with old equipment or new, enterprised and adventured. This energy is denounced by some as "an orgy of soulless cupidity," and praised by others as "a triumph of the spirit of enterprise." In general it was a bit of both. Cupidity, yes, as in all ages and occupations. Enterprise, yes, but not always triumphant, for the field was strewn with the wreckage of men who failed. When the classical economists said profit was the reward of risk and interest the reward of abstinence, they meant it. Not the abstinence that today would lead a man to pick a Buick for his twelfth car instead of a Rolls Royce, but one which meant meager living and the ploughing back of every spare penny into the business. As for risk, some day somebody will study the industrial revolution through the bankruptcy records; but we know enough to realize on what a treacherous sea the entrepreneur launched his tiny bark.

HOW does all this affect the teacher's presentation of economic aspects of modern Europe? It takes out some of the heroics—and the villainics, if I can coin a word—it cuts down the pace, and leaves the tale that of a trend rather than of a tumult. But there is enough left, and space has been made available for more that is of first class importance. Any survey of the making of modern Europe should have something to say about the gradual industrialization of parts of the continent, including the effect of hydro-electricity, industrial chemistry, and post-Bessemer metallurgical developments; the emergence of intensive agriculture; the effect of good roads, canals, railroads, steamships, and refrigeration; the end of serfdom in other countries than

Russia and the evolution of an efficient peasant proprietor economy; the growing need for more capital and better banking; the unprecedented growth of population and the mass migration of 50,000,000 Europeans to other continents in a century; the steady advance of voluntary association and the influence of the social conscience in producing the social service state; the instability of a complex capitalistic system in a world economy; the twentyfold increase in the value of world trade; the impact of the new world on the old; and the ability of Europe to raise greatly the standard of living of an expanding population, thanks to better technique, better organization, and freedom for a hundred years from Armageddon. And if textbooks must have illustrations, I would dispense with pictures of the spinning jenny, Louis Blanc, and even Karl Marx, if thereby I had room for two graphs, one of the movement of general prices and one of the business cycle. These two would explain a lot of social, political, and even diplomatic history.

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Children's Experiences with Money

RUTH WOOD GAVIAN

WHAT kinds of experience in handling and spending money are common to children in the intermediate and upper grades? Do children of this day have any share in the economic decisions of their parents? To explore these experiences a question-sheet on money was prepared and administered to children in grades four through eight in the 1937 Summer Demonstration School of Columbia University.

Ninety-five children, forty-one boys and fifty-four girls, filled out the questionnaire. The sample was not a typical school population, for some 40 per cent of the children were members of the families of summer session students, which means that they were above average in economic and social status. The remaining 60 per cent of the children came from the neighborhood of the school and were somewhat more nearly representative of an average city school population.

A teacher in the intermediate grades at College Preparatory School in Cincinnati reports on a questionnaire given to ninety-five children in order to determine their understanding of such money expenditures as immediately concern them, and she indicates the desirability of further consideration of children's experience with money and of the training desirable in this field.

Buying is undoubtedly a daily experience to a great many of the children questioned. Ninety of them reported that they buy food for their families, nine of them saying "all kinds of foods" and thirty-eight saying "groceries." Two girls said that they buy all the food for their families. Seventy-six children reported that they purchase for themselves toys and playthings or materials for their hobbies. Most of them buy a variety of things as gifts for others; thirty-two mentioned clothing, principally accessories. Forty-four children reported that they buy some clothing for themselves. Nine children said that they buy none of their own clothing. One seventh-grade girl said that she buys all of her own clothing and everything else she needs. Thirty-four children reported buying books, and twenty-two, magazines for themselves, while forty-seven reported buying school needs.

ALLOWANCES AND SPENDING MONEY

ALL the children received spending money, an allowance, or both. Seventy-one reported the receipt of a regular allowance, nearly always paid weekly. Twenty-five cents a week was the median for the entire group, and also for the fifth, seventh, and eighth grades. Twenty cents was the median for the sixth grade, and fifteen cents for the fourth grade. In listing items for which they spend their allowance most of the children mentioned only refreshments, toys and playthings, admissions (mostly to movies and to swimming pools), books, and magazines. Very few reported using their

allowance for clothes, carfares, lunches, gifts, club dues, and school needs. When money is needed for these purposes the child usually receives it in addition to his regular allowance. It is true that a few of the children questioned receive allowances of fifty cents or more a week. (The largest allowance reported was \$1.20.) Yet even an allowance of fifty cents to a dollar would not afford much opportunity to learn to discriminate among the numerous things for which the schoolchild wishes money. It would seem that in most cases the giving of an allowance is only a defense for the parents from too frequent requests for money to spend on candy and trifles. The positive value of the allowance as a method for training the child to handle money, and to exercise judgment in allotting it among various wants, does not appear to be appreciated.

THE inadequacy of the typical allowance is worsened by the fact that the child is expected or required to save part or all of it. In reply to the question, "Do you save part of your allowance or spending money?" only five children said that they do not save any. Seven volunteered the information that they save all of it, and four wrote that they save most of it. Three children mentioned saving for a definite object, such as a bicycle. Unless the child has a definite objective, it is hard to see how his saving could have any educational value. There might even be a dis-educational effect—the inculcating of an unreasoning regard for money as such.

Should the child be paid for doing his share of the housework or home chores, or should his cheerful cooperation with the rest of the family be expected without extrinsic reward? The parents of the group sampled appear to be about equally divided. Thirty-eight of the children wrote that they receive their allowance or spending money in return for work they do, while thirty-eight wrote that this is not the case. Confusion in the mind of the child or the parent is evidenced in the replies of eleven children who stated that they some-

times receive their allowance or spending money in return for work.

EARNING

OVER half of the children had earned money with other children, but usually they were unable to give the purpose for which the money was raised. Fourteen mentioned selling lemonade or candy as the method; eleven, the selling of other things; and ten, the giving of a play or a party.

Nearly all the children had worked to earn money, in many cases, apparently, for their parents or relatives rather than for an outside employer. A few children had raised or made things for sale. Others had shined shoes, sold papers, cared for children, mowed lawns, or performed household chores. Twenty children reported that they buy things needed for their families out of their earnings. Eighteen children, some of them included in the twenty just cited, turn over part or all of their earnings to their families, presumably for the purchase of necessities. That a large proportion of school children in underprivileged families contribute their mites to the family pocketbook is to be expected.

GIVING

GIVING for community purposes, either individually or collectively, is definitely not the habit of this group of children. The questionnaire gave the child half a dozen opportunities to list things for which he uses money, but only one child in the entire group mentioned money for charity. Half a dozen children said that they had earned money with other children to help their church, to buy a gift for their teacher, or to aid war veterans. Doubtless many of these children have put money in the Sunday School collection plate and have contributed small coins to various causes, but, if so, it did not occur to them in setting down the purposes for which they use money. Among this group of children participation in giving for community pur-

poses has either been rare or without vital meaning that would cause it to be remembered.

PARTICIPATION IN FAMILY DECISIONS

TWENTY-NINE children reported that their parents sometimes discuss with them how to spend the family money, while sixty-two children said that their parents do not discuss the subject with them. One eighth-grader answered that his father tries to keep money matters from him. On the other hand a sixth-grader answered, "When Dad gets extra money, we decide what to get for the house, such as a Mixmaster, or paint to paint the walls." An eighth-grader said that her parents talk with her about what portion of the family income to use for food, clothing, and other needs. A boy wrote, "If we are going on a trip, they talk it over with me."

Thirty-six children wrote that they know how much their clothes cost, and sixteen others that they know what some of their clothes cost. Fifty-five children stated that they are consulted before their mother purchases clothing for them. It seems more remarkable that forty children are not regularly consulted about the purchase of their own clothes.

Thirty-six children reported a knowledge of what their family has to live on, by the year, the month, or the week. The eighth-graders made a substantially better showing

on this item than any of the preceding grades, although half of them said that they had no knowledge of the family income.

CONCLUSION

APPARENTLY it would be valuable to explore children's experiences with money on a much larger and more typical school population. This preliminary study is suggestive rather than conclusive. It seems clear that children's experiences with money and the training given them by their parents in handling money are both woefully inadequate. As the family's economic functions have changed from producing goods to earning and spending a cash income, the children have not been allowed to take over a degree of participation that was once natural to them. There is left a large gap in the child's preparation for the control of his own experiences. He is left needlessly helpless and insecure. There is opportunity here for parental education.

On the other hand, practically every child in the sample studied has some experience with buying goods, with earning, and with saving money. These children have genuine economic problems, which the school could help them to meet. Through consumer education, the arithmetic and science in the intermediate grades and the junior high school can be made immediately serviceable to the child, as an individual and as a member of his family group.

Educating Children for Peace

NELLE E. BOWMAN

A PLEA for education in international affairs or for peace seems absurd and useless in this year of our Lord 1938. Yet peace has become the rallying cry of many peoples the world round. Quick popular approval met President Roosevelt's Chicago address: "America hates war. America hopes for peace. Therefore, America actively engages in the search for peace." The English peace ballot of 1935 showed an overwhelming desire for peace. Mussolini declared at Bologna on October 24, 1936, "I hold out the olive branch to the world. . . . There are 151 pacts to insure the peace of Europe. If these pacts mean what they say they mean, there would be need for no more soldiers than enough to insure police protection."

Nevertheless the mad armament race goes merrily on. Great Britain has now appropriated seven billion and a half dollars for preparations for the next war. Our own

navy department has planned to expand our fleet to cost two hundred and thirty-six million dollars by 1939 and only recently has proposed additional expenditures on a scale unprecedented in our history. Plans are on foot to expedite recruiting in case of an outbreak of hostilities. Italy is said to be spending more than half of her national budget on armaments. Japan is spending almost her entire income from taxes for military purposes, while Germany is struggling with an overwhelming burden. Peace movements have apparently failed. The League of Nations has become sadly crippled. The World Court has failed. International law has broken down. Two wars are in progress at the moment. The whole field of international relations is so confused and intricate that a practical working plan for peace seems utterly remote. One may agree that "not a single nation is prepared today to risk money or security, far less to surrender possessions, markets, or interests for the sake of forestalling an international eruption."

It looks like a mad, mad world. What can we, as teachers do, under these conditions? We can fold our hands and say, "Why worry? War is inevitable. We can't stop it." Or we can say, "War is here. It may spread, but there is a fighting chance that it may not and that it may spend its force and may be checked, if the peaceful fighting spirit of the world can be aroused." Since we live in a democracy, one of the most stable in the midst of a mad world, and, since in that democracy we believe in the force of public opinion, we might arouse ourselves to do

What the author cites concerning elementary school pupils' ignorance and indifference toward international affairs is also true of pupils in secondary schools, as the author, the director of social studies in the Central High School at Tulsa, Oklahoma, very well knows. Her practical suggestions for dealing with the situation are applicable and helpful at all levels of school development.

something about the direction of that public opinion through our teaching processes.

If we choose the way of defeatism, we stand to be wiped out. As President Roosevelt said at Chicago, "Let no one imagine that America will escape, that it may expect mercy, that this Western Hemisphere will not be attacked, and that it will continue tranquilly and peacefully to carry on the ethics and arts of civilization."

The other alternative is to put our shoulders to the wheel and push on. We stand a chance to win. All is not yet lost. We face the question of what the schools can do to educate for peace. It is obvious that the schools have failed up to date to educate for peace, if we can judge from the actions of the adult world today.

There has been an appalling apathy toward international questions within our schools. I was a member of a committee in 1935, set up by the National Education Association for Secondary Schools to try to find out what was being done in the teaching of international relations in the secondary schools of the United States. About five hundred questionnaires were mailed, and only ninety-seven schools responded. This amazing indifference on the part of teachers and school officials may account in part for the amazing indifference in general to matters of international concern.

Can it be that teachers are not trained to teach international relations? Or can it be that they are afraid to tackle many of the controversial issues involved? One is discouraged constantly at the lack of courage in the teaching profession. Not only is there a lack of interest in this study on the part of teachers, but, as might be expected, there is a woefully perverted point of view on the part of young people.

A REVEALING report appeared in *Progressive Education* in February, 1933. Paul Limbert and Adelaide Case of Teachers College, Columbia University, conducted an experiment on international attitudes, testing 373 children from the

sixth to the tenth grades. One-third of the children in elementary schools said the Kellogg Pact had something to do with Kellogg breakfast food. Only one-half answered that the Paris Pact was an agreement not to go to war with other nations. They seemed to have adequate attitudes on such abstractions as "justice" and "peace" but were inconsistent when checking the specific items to support these generalizations. All of which showed a great lack of realistic understanding or interpretation of abstract terms.

Professor Limbert remarked that, "if we are to be realistic in peace education, we simply can not rely too much on developing general traits of tolerance and good will. These must be translated into specific attitudes and realistic pictures. We have not succeeded in breaking down in the children the mind picture that has been built up in regard to war as a glorious adventure. We have failed to present war in its stark brutality and horror. A group of educators has recently said: 'War in its role of suffering, devastation, and as a possible destroyer of civilization is yet to enter the stage of the school curriculum.'" He showed that, as these same elementary school children advanced into junior high school, they seemed to develop more understanding. Only 6 per cent of the junior students declared the following statement to be true: "There is no use trying to get rid of War, because people like to fight." Three-quarters of the group said the best way for the United States to keep out of war was to work with other nations. Nevertheless 57 per cent still thought it was their father's duty to support the government in case of war. This change of attitude in junior schools over elementary may indicate that education was one factor at least in bringing this change about.

HOW can the schools educate for international understanding to the end that peace may become a reality? If we believe that education can bring about changed attitudes in children, and, if we believe in

peace as a way of life, we must face the responsibility of doing something about it. We know that little can be done with an adult world with fixed habits of thought. It is from youth with its interests, enthusiasms, and courage to face facts that a constructive program of peace should come.

Nicholas Murray Butler expressed this opinion in the foreword to the book *Educating Children for Peace*:¹

Time is of the essence for the success of any movement to educate and uplift public opinion. The power of fixed habit, of emotion and of fancied self-interest, is so great that it requires not alone informed intelligence but moral courage to gain full understanding of new and lofty purposes and ideals of thought and of action. It is for these reasons that instruction and education must play so large a part in any successful movement to substitute the institutions of peace for the institution of war. There is a persistent fallacy, wholly emotional in origin, that, if war be denounced and protested against, it can be prevented. Nothing could be farther from the truth. The emotional basis upon which this sort of conduct rests is precisely the emotional basis upon which zest and zeal for war can be built in short order when circumstances invite to that end.

The one sure way to keep out of war is to prevent war. The only possible way to prevent war is to build those institutions which can take the place of war in settling international differences and disputes. This means the substitution of judicial process for appeal to armed force and it means the establishment, throughout the world, of collective security in case of violation of the laws of morals and the rules of international law by any government in the world. These fundamental principles must be taught to the young people of this land and of every land.

CULTIVATING A WIDER UNDERSTANDING

THEN how shall we go about it? First of all we must decide on a specific course of action. Definite courses must be set up in our school curriculum on international questions, emphasizing such things as common cultures, contributions of nations to each other, interracial relations, imperialism, and the validity of the claims of the Have Not nations, international law, war and peace. These topics and many others could be studied intensively. Much of the detail in our traditional history courses could give way and make room for these topics. The world is too much with us to

neglect further these burning issues. We are woefully provincial and ignorant about foreign peoples. In the words of Kipling, "What know they of England who only England know?" Students can not judge courses of action among foreign peoples unless they have a thorough knowledge of the conditions under which these people live.

EMOTIONAL pacifism based on brotherly love is not very likely to hold against the war drums, martial music, and tramping feet, when war comes. We must teach boys and girls what war does to a people and how easily emotions are stirred unless there is a sound understanding of how emotions are played upon by war makers. Richard Le Gallienne shows the tricks war plays on human beings.

War
I abhor
And yet how sweet
The sound along the marching street
Of drum and fife! And I forget
Wet eyes of widows and forget
Broken old mothers and the whole
Dark butchery without a soul.

Oh it is wickedness to clothe
Yon hideous grinning thing that stalks
Hidden in music, like a queen
That in a garden of glory walks.
Till good men love the thing they loathe.
Art, thou hast many infamies,
But not an infamy like this.
Oh, snap the fife and still the drum
And show the monster as she is.

We can teach that war can not be a glorious adventure that brings out all the noble qualities of man, when war destroys the noble. We can show that war drums and martial music and uniforms are outmoded tricks of primitive tribes that aroused action by beating on tom toms and using paint and feathers.

USE OF REASON

THE use of reason is slow—it is the possession of the few—but, if education is to fulfil its mission, teachers must somehow catch and train that quality in students. It is said that "every new generation is a fresh

¹I. M. McPherson, *Educating Children for Peace*. New York: Abingdon Press, 1936, p. 9.

invasion of savages" who must be trained and molded to civilization. If the education they receive emphasizes narrow nationalism with its hates and antagonisms, then wars will continue.

WHY not study history realistically? Let boys read *What Every Young Man Should Know About War*.² This book consists of questions that might be asked by any prospective soldier. The answers are taken from various medical reports from the World War annals of the United States and other nations. It is not nice reading, but war is not a nice business, so why not give them the truth? There are many books now in circulation that can be used by parents and teachers. Nelson Antrim Crawford's little book, *Your Child Faces War*,³ lists the questions children ask. "Isn't it ever right to fight? Lots of great men fought including Papa. Were they all wrong? Do makers of munitions put nations in War? Doesn't war bring out noble qualities, heroism, self sacrifice, love of country? Does not war bind the people of a nation together in a common devotion to patriotic ideals? Why haven't we a right to sell to whom we please and sail our ships where we please?" The answers are given simply and directly and provide a basis for lively discussion. The Daily Vacation Bible School in New York City received a grant from the Carnegie Foundation to establish a program for peace. The story is reported in *Educating Children for Peace*, mentioned above. It would be hard to find a more realistic, emotional picture of war than that of "Wings for China" in the November *Atlantic Monthly*. Or choose bits from the brilliant broadcast on August 4, 1937, by Alistair Cooke, called "Oh, Baby. German Baron vs California Truck Driver's Son: A Study in Good Ambassadorship." Here is broadcasting at its best. Alistair Cooke is one of the newest of this generation of

radio commentators, who gives a sparkling account of the tennis victory of Donald Budge. The story is told in a way to appeal to young people. It is a story not only of tennis victory but the story of sport as an instrument for the spread and preservation of international good will.⁴

WE should teach boys and girls to be wary of propaganda. One is a good deal disturbed these days at the similarity of news stories to those of the days preceding the World War. The atrocity stories of the Japanese in China smack too realistically of the stories told of Belgian atrocities perpetrated by the Germans during the early months of the Belgium invasion in 1914. There is an obvious repression of news from Japan, reminding one of the lack of German news in the early days before the United States entered the World War. As one listens to the March of Time broadcasts and sees their news reels, he is very uncomfortable at the thought that we have learned little from past experience and that propaganda is still at work. Students must be taught to be fully aware of this influence. Hitler is reported to have remarked: "Through clever and constant application of propaganda, people can be made to see paradise as hell and hell as paradise."⁵

The new *Propaganda Analysis*, a bulletin published by a group of educators from 132 Morningside Drive, New York City, can be useful to teachers really concerned in training students to detect propaganda. They publish the statement that the monthly letter is available "to all [subscribers] who desire periodic, objective appraisals of today's propagandas, their sources and the channels through which they flow: newspapers, magazines, radio stations, motion pictures, labor and business groups, patriotic societies, farm organizations, schools, churches, political parties." Time will tell

² H. R. Shapiro. New York: Knight, 1937.

³ *Your Child Faces War*. New York: Coward McCann, 1937.

⁴ *Vital Speeches*, August 15, 1937.

⁵ H. C. Engelbrecht, *Revolt Against War*. New York: Dodd, Mead, 1937. p. 109.

whether or not this organization will be effective. At least it is calling public attention to the use being made of propaganda, and teachers can use this aid in the classroom.

CAPTURING OUTSIDE INFLUENCES

WE must face the fact that much of children's education is beyond the control of the school. There is the world of motion pictures, radio, and press, over which the school has little control or influence. And here it is that much of what the school teaches is nullified. Courses should be set up in school to teach boys and girls to evaluate these agencies of public education. The school must project itself into the community and join forces with the community agencies if boys and girls are truly to be educated.

Thurstone and Peterson have proved that the movie has a great effect on the emotional reactions of children. A questionnaire was circulated last year by the Children's Aid Society of New York City among ten thousand boys and girls between the ages of eleven and thirteen years, living in the tenement area. They found that, for every child who spends three hours weekly reading a book, twelve spend three hours weekly at the movies. Recently in the films the public has been treated to much war glorification. It would be difficult to estimate the influence of this on the minds of impressionable young people. Here is a field for adult action. Mr Benham of the National Council for the Prevention of War publishes a monthly bulletin to analyze the most recent war films. He urges adults to send letters of protest to the producing companies and comments. "It cannot be emphasized too often or too strongly that the way to bring about any lasting improvement in screen content is through box office action. If we continue to pay our money to see war glorified on the screen, we can logically expect the producers to keep on concocting such films to entertain us."

It will be impossible to influence young

people toward peace, unless we as school people join forces with the adults of the community in bringing about better educational influences wherever found.

AT the present time over 25,869,000 American homes are equipped with radios, and it has been estimated that the radio is turned on from four to five hours a day. Here is an agency of education hard to touch for it is outside the school's domain. The radio is admirably equipped to do a good educational job. It has the advantage of contemporary appeal. It has a group of excellent speakers with good voices, dramatically trained to create pictures in the minds of its listeners. More and more the radio has invaded the schools, and it is to be hoped that plans can be established to use programs outside the school jurisdiction. All power to the new series of educational broadcasts by the National Education Association in connection with the Columbia Broadcasting Company! This series of broadcasts was inspired by the 1936 Buenos Aires conference. Over a thousand dollars a week of the WPA funds have been given to the National Education Office for this project. Columbia is spending about three times as much. This "Brave New World" series has launched a twenty-six week program which dramatizes Latin American history, heroes, and culture.

Much can be made of such radio programs to cultivate international understanding. What more dramatic presentation could possibly be made of the forces that create dictators and influence world thought and action than the superb script of Archibald MacLeish "The Fall of the City." The rich, emotional voice of Burgess Meredith as the orator, accompanied by the organ-like voice of Orson Welles, the announcer, with their background of sound, creates a picture not easily forgotten. Mr MacLeish says in the introduction, "the ear is the poet's perfect audience." Much use should be made of this type of material to show "what is happening to a world which feels

itself being doomed by the spread of dictatorships." * This is a rich world to draw on for teaching purposes.

READING must be directed. Much more use should be made of current materials, such as newspapers, magazines, and pamphlets. Students must learn to handle controversial issues and to evaluate the printed page. There is such an intricate interlocking of forces that go to make up a child's education: textbooks, teacher training, personality and attitude, home influences, college entrance requirements, pressure groups of a patriotic, political, or economic bias, that the school is helpless unless it can start a development whose very momentum will carry it on into adult education and will in turn so move the controlling influences surrounding the child in its community life that a healthy international point of view may be brought about. It does seem that the function of the school should be to teach sound thinking, to establish bases for the evaluation of educational forces, to direct interest, and to start a momentum for continued study that will carry on into adulthood. It is only through some such means that we can hope to influence public opinion that really operates the democracy under which we live in its relation to other nations.

MUCH more use could be made of the extra-curricular agencies of the school to bring about a better international feeling. In the questionnaire referred to above teachers were asked to list the means used to arouse interest in international affairs and the following items were given, in the order of frequency mentioned here: (1) bulletin boards; (2) intensive study of the League of Nations; (3) annual celebration of Armistice Day and International Good Will Day; (4) radio talks; (5) exhibits of student work; (6) participation in the National Contest of the League; (7) student debates on public questions; (8)

correspondence with foreign students; (9) participation in assembly programs; (10) outside speakers on international questions; (11) scrap books on foreign countries; (12) special use of travel literature; (13) motion pictures; (14) stamp collections; (15) "International Club"; (16) original orations on peace; (17) presenting plays and pageants publicly; (18) writing letters to congressmen and public officials; (19) visits to museums; (20) stage model assembly of League; (21) one issue of school paper devoted to peace or international questions.

This list shows what might be done with the agencies outside the school in order to fuse formal instruction with the child's own interests and thus make what is learned in the textbook a real part of the child's life both in and out of school.

TEACHERS were asked to list their greatest difficulties in teaching international relations to high school students and the following replies were made: (1) reference books too difficult for high school students; (2) lack of time on the part of both teacher and student; (3) lack of background; (4) too much prejudice to break down; (5) lack of interest—no desire for reading; (6) limited library facilities; (7) influence of Hearst and other papers to counteract; (8) lack of adequate material; (9) lack of good texts; (10) influence of military training; (11) difficulty of developing habits of withholding judgment; (12) limited vocabulary; (13) smug nationalism; (14) no elementary understanding of economic interdependence; (15) adolescents too interested in personal affairs; (16) difficulty of obtaining impartiality of treatment; (17) lack of a United States foreign policy; (18) depressing to young students; (19) students too immature for such questions; (20) only the better students interested and they occupied with other activities; (21) too crowded classes.

This list of difficulties shows some of the problems facing a teacher in public schools today. Many teachers are poorly trained for

* *Scholastic*, November 13, 1937.

such teaching and lack the initiative and resourcefulness to overcome these difficulties. We must remember, too, that teachers have lacked security and often fear to push an issue that might involve them in conflict with their local communities. Again the gap between the adult world outside and the school must be closed, if we are to expect effective school training for peace.

STIMULATING INSTRUCTION AND PARTICIPATION

STUDENTS must be taught better in history courses in school. They must be taught to consider questions of the fundamental causes for war. They must be brought to see that nations do not choose war because of their fondness for killing but because war and force, so far in history, have been the only methods by which nations have been able to get what they need or think they need. What nations want is justice, and humanity must be taught to think in terms of human needs. One writer has said: "The most valuable contribution to peace is not a campaign against war so much as a crusade for justice."⁷

We must teach what war does to a civilization, its devastating effects on a civilian population, its demoralization of all peaceful arts, its destruction of property and trade, and its effect on organized governments and on the mental psychology of a people. We must show the need for more adequate machinery to settle the difficulties arising among nations and the difficulties in the way of establishing such machinery.

As teachers, we ourselves need to know more history. We need to show what great gains have been made by diplomacy and by consultation and to point out the need for a continuation and an intensification of these efforts. We must teach that international problems leading to war are intricate forces, not easily solved by a few diplomats sitting intermittently about a conference

table for a few days or hours each year.

Students must realize the difficulties in the way of determining causes for war. They must understand that these causes are tremendously complicated. Conscientious and sincere scholars are still working on the causes for the latest world war. Students must be brought to see how selfish interests use propaganda and emotion to serve their purposes and stampede masses of people into serving their ends. They must see the underlying psychological causes for war, the hates, jealousies, the economic rivalries, the emotional forces that bring on war.

WE must adopt some of the psychology of the war experts for our own purposes. We need a remaking of our courses in terms of social sensitivity. We need colorful reading materials, pictures, and stories, presenting facts accurately but in a dramatic and pictorial form that will attract a wider reading interest. We need to teach children the common interests of humanity. We have common dangers, such as disease, poverty, crime, and we need to know and feel how these can be met. We have seen recently how one love story has made the world akin, and the same human attack on many of our other common relations might bring us close together. When a man can fly from Venezuela to Oklahoma in forty-eight hours, the world is certainly closely knit together. Students must see the peoples of these other lands as human beings with the same interests, hopes, and desires. If our teaching were really effective one writer says that with a revolution in Spain "the educated American would see in his mind, not abstractions about 'Right' and 'Left' but far off friends, living, working, hoping, despairing, under the conditions which actually prevail in contemporary Spain. . . . To ask teachers to give students more than facts: to ask them to set stirring in the hearts of the young a warmth of human feeling: to ask them to make of politics and economics something more than relatively meaningless abstractions: to ask them to relate social

⁷ Robert Wilberforce in "Peace or War—1937," *Review of Reviews*, January, 1937, p. 30.

science to the problems of actual human beings, is to ask them to be artists in the performance of their tasks. It is only through a work of art that people can be made to see and feel those common elements of experience that should bind them all together in a cooperation which in political terms we call democracy, and in religious terms we call the brotherhood of man." ⁸ This is emotional training but sound psychology, and it is from these emotional, psychological sources that much of our troubles arise.

WE in Tulsa have tried to do this very thing. We have a course in the ninth grade on "International Cooperation," which attempts to introduce to young students some of the intricate international questions in a form which they can understand. One section is devoted to a free reading period. Our public librarian has compiled a list of children's books on world friendship (copies of which are available if you are interested). These books are taken to the junior school classrooms, and children are given several days for free reading. They read anything they like. No formal reports are called for. They are encouraged to compare notes, and, if they want to tell the class about an interesting book, they may do so. The books are then returned to the central library, and we find that the circulation of these books has increased enormously since this plan has been instituted. We hope by this system to create an abiding interest in this type of reading.

We return to this study in a more specific form in our eleventh and twelfth grades in senior high school. We have a unit on "War and Peace," where students make a definite study of the causes of war and

analyze the practical possibilities of international cooperation as a means of settling disputes. We have set up a series of activities that enlist the realistic participation of students in community and national affairs. Committees of students check on the movies for war propaganda, check the radio for the same purpose, and set up a series of evaluations for magazine and newspaper reading to show how public opinion is formulated. They study the neutrality measures in Congress and write letters to their representatives. They stage assembly programs on peace. They each present a paper on some phase of the international situation.

The English department directs the construction of these manuscripts, and the public speaking department trains them for public presentation. One of the essays won the *Atlantic Monthly* national award in 1936 and another won honorable mention. Both essays were on topics of international interest. I mention this to show how effective this cooperation of departments has been. We attribute the success of this experience to the fact that students had a sound grasp of content which was basic. Out of this developed a style of writing that was most effective. Civics clubs about town make connections with the public speaking department, and these students are called on to appear before these clubs. We hope in this way to give a realistic participating experience in community and national affairs. At the same time we try to give accurate informational instruction and to develop a method of evaluation of emotional materials that in turn may cause stability and forceful action.

Those of us who teach are in a position to guide the destinies of our nation, if we stick to our ideal of world peace and are willing to go on working for it in the face of discouraging facts of war and rumors of war.

⁸ Walter E. Myer, "Cultivating Interests in Sympathies," *Journal of the National Education Association*, October, 1936.

Testing Attitude and Understanding

HOWARD R. ANDERSON

DURING the autumn of 1936 the two major parties mobilized all agencies of communication in an effort to shape public opinion. Republican writers and campaign speakers clamored that the party in power was creating a "bureaucracy" and introducing "regimentation." They were tireless in pointing out that the administration, in spite of the huge sums collected in "hidden taxes," was making no effort to obtain a "balanced budget." The persuasive chief spokesman of the Democratic party, on the other hand, spoke in glowing terms of the benefits resulting from a "planned economy" under the "New Deal" and denounced as "economic royalists" his critics in the ranks of the "American Liberty League."

No social studies teacher could resist speculating about the probable effect of this battle of words on readers and listeners. The writer, then teaching in the University of Iowa High School, seized the opportunity to study the influence of campaign propaganda in shaping the attitudes of pupils living in and near Iowa City. About

one-third of the pupils in this six-year junior-senior high school came from favored homes and had had their early education in the University Elementary School. The others came from rural districts and were graduates of neighboring one-room standard rural schools. The political complexion of the school body may be inferred from the fact that the Democrats usually carry Johnson County in normal election years by a narrow margin. The students themselves, in an election held that November, gave President Roosevelt a majority of 25 in a total vote of more than 240.

THE following procedure was adopted in this study. On September 28, 1936, the University of Iowa High School pupils enrolled in social studies classes, a total of 240 students in grades seven to twelve inclusive, were given the following brief test exercise and accompanying directions:

The purpose of this test is to find out how you feel about some of the things discussed in connection with the campaign. Draw a circle around the symbol (+) if you feel favorably toward or approve that which a term suggests; draw a circle around the symbol (?) if you are neutral, that is, neither approve nor disapprove; draw a circle around the symbol (-) if you feel unfavorably toward or disapprove the thing which a term suggests. You do not need to sign your name.

+	?	-	New Deal
+	?	-	Bureaucracy
+	?	-	Hidden tax
+	?	-	Planned economy
+	?	-	Dictatorship
+	?	-	Socialism
+	?	-	American Liberty League
+	?	-	Regimentation
+	?	-	Balanced budget
+	?	-	Economic royalists

A professor of social studies' methods in the Graduate School of Education at Cornell University points out, with figures and charts, that in spite of efforts and success at persuading pupils to read newspapers and magazines they still lack information essential to the formation of intelligent opinions and attitudes.

No time limit was enforced but when a pupil had finished he was asked to write on the reverse side of the paper a brief explanation of each of the terms listed.

TABLE I reveals the professed attitudes of the pupils. In Table II is given for each term the number of pupils whose explanations were adjudged satisfactory and unsatisfactory, as well as the number omitting an explanatory statement. In this scor-

TABLE I.
Attitudes of 240 High School Pupils Toward
Certain Terms

	Favorable (+)		Neutral (?)		Unfavorable (-)	
	number	per cent	number	per cent	number	per cent
New Deal	97	40	57	24	86	36
Bureaucracy	6	3	193	80	41	17
Hidden tax	9	4	118	49	113	47
Planned economy	131	55	85	35	24	10
Dictatorship	19	8	59	25	162	67
Socialism	51	21	100	42	89	37
American Liberty League	72	30	138	57	30	13
Regimentation	24	10	180	75	36	15
Balanced budget	173	72	48	20	19	8
Economic royalists	15	6	162	68	63	26

ing the writer, disregarding favorable or unfavorable "coloring," considered only whether the statements indicated a reasonable understanding. Most of the decisions that he had to make in scoring the papers were not difficult. Thus "an organization run by the *Liberty* magazine" was deemed an unsatisfactory explanation of "American Liberty League" but "a group of wealthy men wanting their own way" and "a group of big business men who favor constitutional government" were rated satisfactory.

If only the data in Table I are considered, one might feel that the group tested had proved itself singularly fair minded and dispassionate. More than half the pupils indicated that they neither approved nor disapproved what is suggested by the terms "bureaucracy," "American Liberty League," "regimentation," and "economic royalists." This certainly represents a balance between Republican and Democratic sentiments. That the great majority reacted unfavorably to "dictatorship" and favor-

TABLE II.
Ability of 240 High School Pupils to Write Brief
Explanations of Certain Terms

	Satisfactory		Unsatisfactory		Omitted	
	number	per cent	number	per cent	number	per cent
New Deal	146	61	35	15	59	24
Bureaucracy	3	1	21	9	216	90
Hidden tax	51	21	22	9	167	70
Planned economy	14	6	89	37	137	57
Dictatorship	147	61	15	6	78	33
Socialism	48	20	43	18	149	62
American Liberty League	15	6	29	12	196	82
Regimentation	4	2	21	9	215	89
Balanced budget	77	32	81	34	82	34
Economic royalists	12	5	14	6	214	89

ably to "balanced budget" might be expected. It seems strange, however, that only 97 pupils should favor the "New Deal," whereas 131 favored a "planned economy" which, in a sense, the New Deal had sponsored. A probable explanation is suggested by data in Table II.

FIGURES in Table II show that 146 pupils wrote a satisfactory explanation of "New Deal." This is a larger number than the 97 who according to Table I favored the "New Deal." In the case of the term "planned economy" the situation is reversed. A total of 131 pupils favored a "planned economy," but only 14 could define the term. It should be noted also that 37 per cent of the pupils tested explained this term incorrectly, most of them stating in substance that "planned economy is spending no more than you earn." It appears therefore that only a small number gave positive proof of understanding and that a much larger number confused the term with balancing the budget. Another term frequently explained unsatisfactorily was "balanced budget." In this case the failure can not be ascribed to a fundamental misconception as much as to inadequate understanding. The following are typical of statements marked unsatisfactory: "to balance the budget is to divide sums between each and every one," "a balanced budget means so much money for all things to be done." A disturbing fact revealed in Table II is that for eight of the terms the majority of the pupils omitted an explana-

tion. Except by inference there is no way of judging the degree of understanding to which they had attained.

TABLE III reveals the extent to which pupils expressing definite reactions were able also to explain the terms satisfactorily. It will be recalled that 131 and 173 pupils, respectively, expressed approval of "planned economy" and "balanced budget." Table III reveals that only 8 per cent of the pupils who approved a "planned economy" could define it correctly and that 52 per cent defined it incorrectly. Only 40 per cent of the pupils who approved a "balanced budget" could define this term correctly. Nearly as large a percentage defined it incorrectly. In the case of "dictatorship," the term that provoked an unfavorable reaction on the part of 162 pupils, the results are more reassuring. A total of 79 per cent of these pupils defined the term correctly.

TABLE III.

Comparison of Pupils' Professed Attitudes and Their Ability to Explain Certain Terms¹

	Favorable (+)			Neutral (?)			Unfavorable (-)		
	S.	U.	O.	S.	U.	O.	S.	U.	O.
New Deal	76	12	11	46	14	40	54	17	29
Bureaucracy	0	33	67	1	5	94	5	22	73
Hidden tax	22	33	45	2	3	95	42	14	44
Planned economy	8	52	40	1	15	84	8	33	58
Dictatorship	42	21	37	17	3	80	79	6	15
Socialism	31	22	47	11	8	81	24	27	49
American Liberty League	4	24	72	1	7	92	33	10	57
Regimentation	4	33	63	1	4	95	5	17	78
Balanced budget	40	38	22	8	21	71	21	32	47
Economic royalists	7	33	60	2	4	94	13	5	82

¹ The per cent of pupils giving satisfactory and unsatisfactory explanations as well as omitting an explanation is given. The figures are round. The number of pupils in each category may be computed by referring to Table I.

It should be recalled also that the majority of pupils had expressed a neutral attitude toward the terms "bureaucracy," "American Liberty League," "regimentation," and "economic royalists." Table III reveals that in each case most of these pupils had omitted an explanation of the item. Indeed the per cent of pupils professing a

neutral attitude who omitted explanations was, respectively, for these four items: 95, 92, 95, and 94. It seems probable that the symbol (?) was encircled by many pupils who had no adequate understanding of a term and therefore felt no profound convictions one way or the other.

THIS last conclusion is strengthened by data presented in Table IV. For each of the terms the number of pupils whose explanation was adjudged satisfactory, unsatisfactory, or omitted was tabulated and the per cent professing a favorable, neutral, or unfavorable attitude computed. An examination of the data in Table IV reveals that pupils able to explain the terms satisfactorily tend to be positive in their likes and dislikes. Thus 51, 79, and 90 per cent, respectively, approved "New Deal,"

TABLE IV.

Comparison of Pupils' Ability to Explain Certain Terms and Their Professed Attitudes¹

	Satisfactory			Unsatisfactory			Omitted		
	+	?	-	+	?	-	+	?	-
New Deal	51	18	32	34	23	43	19	39	42
Bureaucracy	0	33	67	10	48	43	2	85	13
Hidden tax	4	4	92	14	14	73	2	68	30
Planned economy	79	7	14	76	15	9	38	52	10
Dictatorship	5	7	88	27	13	60	9	60	31
Socialism	33	23	44	26	19	56	16	54	30
American Liberty League	20	13	67	59	31	10	26	65	9
Regimentation	25	25	50	38	33	29	7	80	13
Balanced budget	90	5	5	80	12	7	48	41	11
Economic royalists	8	25	67	36	43	21	4	71	25

¹ The per cent of pupils indicating favorable, unfavorable, and neutral attitudes is given. The figures are rounded to the nearest whole number. The number of pupils in each category may be computed by referring to Table II.

"planned economy," and "balanced budget." Also 67, 92, 88, 67, 50, and 67 per cent, respectively, disapproved "bureaucracy," "hidden tax," "dictatorship," "American Liberty League," "regimentation" and "economic royalists." Comparing pupils who gave satisfactory and unsatisfactory explanations, it appears that in every case but one a higher per cent of the latter had encircled the symbol (?). In the case of pupils who omitted an explanation the per cent

professing a neutral attitude is far greater than for the other groups. There is therefore a suggestion of correlation between lack of understanding and tendency to select the symbol (?).

IT is not possible to discount the results on the ground that the pupils were asked to react to terms about which they were completely uninformed. To a questionnaire concerning the newspaper and magazine reading done by these pupils during the preceding week (September 20-26), all but twenty pupils answered that they read one or more newspapers regularly, and all but thirty-six that they read one or more magazines regularly. The total amount of such reading during the week in question which was thus recorded ranged from an average of about five hours in grades seven and eight to an average of about eight hours in grade twelve. These estimates were submitted anonymously so there is little reason to believe that they were padded. In interviews pupils claimed that the totals represented about the normal amount of such reading. The average number of minutes spent in reading national (chiefly campaign) news in the daily press was of course only a fraction of the total time listed, ranging from twenty-three minutes in grade seven to seventy-six minutes in grade twelve. In addition, however, the pupils indicated a wide

interest in news broadcasts and a smaller interest in political broadcasts. It may be assumed, therefore, that pupils had encountered these terms in their reading or in their listening to radio broadcasts without having acquired an adequate understanding of their meaning.

THE results just presented carry certain implications for social studies teaching and testing. Not only is it desirable to stress wide reading in current publications of materials dealing with important contemporary happenings but it is equally important to provide opportunity for thoughtful discussion of such readings. At the time of this testing, the pupils studied lacked a reasonable grasp of technical terminology and campaign issues to serve as a reasoned basis for opinions and points of view. Publication of the test results served both to call attention to this lack of understanding and to motivate a thorough study of the campaign. Unquestionably there was a real advantage in simultaneously testing attitudes and understanding. Had this not been done the results of the attitude test might have been accepted at face value. Certainly the teachers would have had no clear insight into the misunderstanding and inadequate understanding that help explain the reactions of so many of the pupils to the terms included in this test.

Graphic Methods in the Social Studies

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON

A MARKED characteristic of the times in which we live is the increasing use of visual and auditory media. In a variety of forms they touch almost every aspect of life, notably through advertising and all kinds of propaganda. With the increasing vogue of the motion picture, the tabloid newspaper, the picture magazine, and radio broadcasting they have claimed an increasing share of leisure hours. All ages are being played upon through these media to an extent that has naturally attracted the attention of educators.

Thus far efforts to capitalize them or to adapt them to school uses have, in most cases, not been notably successful. Educational appraisals have concerned themselves primarily with externals. The criteria applied have been set up largely in terms of existing forms and the present uses and purposes served, rather than in terms of their more effective utilization in the social studies classroom. Incidentally, this is a problem which a Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies has recently faced in cooperation with a number

of existing agencies. The final word, however, for those materials falling within the field, must come from the social studies teacher. The fact is that a large amount of this material is very close to, if not actually part of, the social studies. We can not ignore its existence whether it is brought within the confines of the classroom or whether it continues to function chiefly in the world outside.

Every book on method that has appeared in recent years has devoted some attention to visual and auditory materials and methods. Professor Horn's recently published survey of instruction in the social studies, part of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies,¹ gives an unusual amount of space to this particular aspect of instruction. This, in the judgment of the writer, is as it should be, for in this area will be found the key to real progress.

The same period, however, that has witnessed the appearance of so much graphic material has also been marked by the growing complexity of teaching procedures. To the young teacher, as he turns the pages of some of our recent textbooks on method, the task before him must appear formidable indeed. The warning note sounded by the Commission on the Social Studies in its *Conclusions and Recommendations*² against a methodology "revolving about its own center" seems to find its justification in these highly mechanistic treatments, which are, moreover, in sharp contrast to most of

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¹ Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in The Social Studies*. New York: Scribner, 1937.

² New York: Scribner, 1934.

the literature emanating from our English colleagues, of which Frederick Crossfield Happold's *Approach to History*³ is an excellent example.

Does methodology, then, have to be so intricate? Is the only approach to a sound classroom treatment of the social studies to be found in this maze of prescriptions, these refinements of thinking, this "tearing of the technique to tatters," to paraphrase Shakespeare's well known passage? The very meticulousness exhibited by these purveyors of effective methods serves mainly to confuse the teacher, and all but precludes any exercise of his own judgment or discretion. What is it that has prevented any effective use of this rich sensory material so closely identified with the social sciences? Is it possible that over-emphasis on the mechanics of teaching constitutes the major obstacle to the effective utilization of these visual and auditory media, which are apparently so influential in the world about us?

THE introduction of visual and auditory aids is essentially a problem of curriculum making. Method and content, inextricably intertwined and interrelated, together constitute the major portion of a functioning curriculum. This interdependence has been recognized in the *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies in such statements as the following: "Methodology . . . advances to the center of the substance with which it deals"; "Methodology . . . is inseparable from the content of thought in the field involved"; and "A decision concerning the general pattern of the organization of the course of study in the social sciences is at the same time a decision in method" (p. 74). Such statements on the inseparability of content and method are predicated on a recognition of the social sciences as "systematic bodies of knowledge, patterns of organization, structures of social thought,

and methods indispensable to intellectual operations in the field," and not, to quote the same volume, "a huge mass of raw and inchoate materials" (pp. 45, 44) as has been assumed by so many teachers and curriculum makers. It should be noted that in the quoted paragraph the methods involved are declared to be *indispensable* "to intellectual operations in the field."

This relationship has also been stated by Isaiah Bowman. "Good teaching," he says in his independent statement on the findings of the Commission, "takes account of the nature of the subject, how its facts were gathered, its inner organization, its modes of discovery. This is 'methodology,' if you please, of the highest type. It rarely gets consideration" (*Ibid.* p. 167).

ANY revolutionary change, then, in the materials or methods of instruction involves an equally revolutionary modification of the curriculum. Such a change is bound to follow the incorporation into education of graphic materials. They demand a method that is realistic, not subordinated, as has long been the case, to formal textual material and to mechanistic reading exercises having as their principal outcome the attainment of a modicum of information. It may be noted that this need for realism is also insisted upon in the *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission: "The program of social science instruction should provide for a realistic study of the life, institutions, and cultures of the major peoples of the contemporary world" (p. 52), and it presents "facts and organizations of knowledge and thought corresponding more or less closely to the realities of the social scene in development" (p. 45). This is the crux of the problem, and the hypothesis upon which this paper rests. Here is to be found the key to methodology.

We are, then, in agreement with the findings of the Commission when we insist that the social studies in school programs ought to be aspects of living, with special emphasis on the social aspects—that is on those

³ New York: Harcourt Brace, 1926.

aspects involving living together—as modified by three major factors: (1) environment, whether natural or man made; (2) time; and (3) man or race. They are concerned with human data and the relation of such data to areas or problems of living.

IF, as has been assumed by some of the current experimentation with such motion pictures as "The Devil Is a Sissy," "Winterset," "The Informer," and "Fury," the motion picture is an effective vehicle for the actual incorporation of a social situation, then such movies must be brought into the teaching program. The weakness of the present investigation lies in the transfer to the classroom of a form of motion picture organization intended primarily to serve a different purpose—recreation and amusement. Such a picture is made according to a well defined formula, sometimes spoken of as the Hollywood pattern, in which the needs and purposes of the classroom have no part. It is the school itself, through the classroom teacher of the social studies, that must discover the formula to be followed, building thereon its own motion picture medium. We may hope that results pointing in this direction will be the outcome of investigations now in progress, justifying the time, energy, and money expended. If an effective formula is found, it will differ greatly from that of Hollywood productions, and it must take due account of "the systematic bodies of knowledge, patterns of organization, structures of social thought" represented by the social sciences.

AUDITORY and visual aids, like the social studies in general, must, then, be concerned with the problems of social living. They are concerned, as Henry Johnson has pointed out, with physical human beings and physical environment, with words, actions, thoughts, feelings, and resolutions. No real progress will be made until attention and effort are focused directly on the possibilities that pictures,

movies, and the radio offer for pulling these elements apart and putting them together again, in a serious and systematic study of man and society. An English writer on method, speaking of the use of pictures, says: "Pictures are indeed among a teacher's most serious tools. They are not extras to be presented as a reward for good conduct, or stimulants to be kept for use in moments of fatigue. To discover the point at which they can be of most help in the learning of history is a necessary part in a teacher's preparation."⁴

The present situation in the teaching of the social studies is analogous to that which prevailed a generation or two ago in teaching the natural sciences, when textual material and the textbook method were dominant. With the introduction of the laboratory and the actual manipulation of the materials studied, not only was the teaching itself profoundly modified but a new science curriculum came into existence. Today any such formal treatment as characterized earlier teaching would not be tolerated. In the social studies field, however, we have lagged lamentably. Graphic materials—actual fragments of the life and society we are studying—and graphic methods—actual seeing, hearing, and, when possible, handling, manipulating, and shaping aspects of society—have thus far played but an insignificant role.

LET us look at the needs of the classroom teacher entrusted with the effective presentation of social studies material. His problem is threefold. (1) He himself must recognize, and analyze, and understand the externals of these life or "living" situations. These situations may be represented by their "remains," that is, the fragments thrown off as it were from past situations and left behind, or they may be represented by the actual manifestations of present life. (2) These must be made available to pupils on a laboratory basis, by moving them in or

⁴Catherine B. Firth, *The Learning of History in Elementary Schools*. London: Trubner, 1929, p. 103.

going to see them or representing them with the greatest possible realism. In many instances, as in a laboratory, they will pose a problem for consideration. (3) The results for the pupil must be in terms of his own experiences and environment; to make this possible the teaching must be a re-creation, a reexamination, or in some cases an initial examination of the actual phenomena, as, again, in laboratory procedures.

In this last connection Dr Horn points out that "Any graphic device that is used by reputable social scientists or geographers is appropriate for use by students, providing it is not too difficult to make or to understand. Maps, diagrams, photographs, and representative drawings are all a part of the tools with which the social scientist works."⁵

There is, however, more than technique involved in the use of such devices "by reputable scientists." A map may be a result of teaching as well as a device. It may be so thoroughly identified with the environment as to become actually part of it. It may at the same time be a representation of that setting—an attempt to embody it in a comprehensible form. And so with a graph or diagram. The point is that the intangible reality behind it, or rather the intangible element in that reality, can never be presented or expressed adequately. The reality is embodied, as it were, in the form in which it is expressed. The chosen expression of it, so far as the learner is concerned, is a part of the reality itself, and is set forth after the learner's own fashion. Media for visualizing and apprehending reality may take the form of words and expressions as they reflect significant thoughts, feelings, and resolutions.

THE application of such an analysis and procedure to a portion of the social studies curriculum may help clarify this position. Again there is no thought of enunciating in this connection a complete

curriculum procedure. Let us assume the usual basis for a social studies curriculum in grades seven and eight, namely a study of American history with emphasis upon the more significant changes which have marked our development in the past. For this the teacher proceeds to shape up social situations, units, or instructional areas. Assuming further that these have been set up in such a challenging fashion as actually or realistically to suggest the changing relations involved, the teacher asks, "What are the external, that is the sensory, the pictorial, aspects of this unit? How far can or should he go in supplying these? What has already been used? What is the ideal form of picture or graphic material needed? How can it be supplied?"

The general answer to the question as to how far he should go in his attempt to supply this graphic material is conditioned on the practical side by those forms of material which can be introduced readily into the classroom or be found conveniently elsewhere. Barring reconstructions, either authoritative or merely imaginative, they are also limited to the actual "traces" or "remains" of the situation. Many of its most revealing and characteristic traces may have disappeared. In other words, the "documents," human or otherwise, that remain may be scanty. What was once a vital, pulsating, human situation now often finds itself incorporated in words and phrases far removed from the actuality itself. On the external or realistic side the search is for an incorporation or embodiment in some form of the physical human beings, the physical environment involved, the words, the acts, the thoughts, feelings, and resolutions that were a part of it, in the vehicle which tends best to preserve or communicate their form and substance. The speaker well recalls an informal talk given many years ago by the son of a missionary to India in which he kept before his audience a curved bit of iron that had once been the principal implement with which the Indian peasant had carried on his farming opera-

⁵ *Op. cit.*, pp. 447f.

tions. The bit of iron proved to be just such a vehicle, because it was a fragment of the situation itself.

OUR social studies textbooks, if they are constructed according to sound teaching principles, are bodies of such teaching materials brought together to make such contacts as we consider worth while with the social environment of our ancestors. Take for example the situation in the South out of which the worst crisis in our American history gradually took shape. In the Daniel C. Knowlton and Mary Harden textbook, *Since We Became a Nation*,⁶ this forms part of a larger episode (call it a unit if you will) "We Quarrel among Ourselves and Fight." This situation in its initial stages is set forth in a chapter entitled "The Beginnings of a Cotton Kingdom," which, in my judgment, is nothing more or less than an organization or assembling of desirable instructional materials. As we inventory what appears there in terms of the graphic or realistic contacts represented, we find the following:

Drawing of an old plantation gin house and cotton press, showing them in operation.

The "big house" on a Southern plantation, from an actual photograph.

Diagram or plan of a Southern plantation.

Slave cabins, "the Quarters," an actual photograph.

Invoice of a sale of slaves, a facsimile.

Slave auction, as pictured in an antislavery almanac of 1839.

The cotton kingdom, 1860, a map, the work of a scholar, showing the areas in which slaves constituted 50 per cent or more of the population in 1860.

Plan of lower deck of slave ship from a contemporary print.

Handbill of 1859 announcing the play "Uncle Tom's Cabin," a facsimile.

(Bear in mind that these were selected before any text was supplied, thereby conforming to the curriculum procedure set forth earlier.)

Of a similar character, but differing as to form, are the following "remains" or "fragments" of the situation under consideration:

Description of the appearance of a field of cotton and of the big house as it might loom out of the environment, based on contemporary accounts.

Description of the slave quarters in the 'fifties by one of our famous visitors from Europe, Frederika Bremer.

Text (but not in facsimile form) of a notice in a newspaper of a sale of slaves.

Description of such a sale by the European visitor already referred to.

An amusing extract from the *Augusta, Georgia, Courier* of 1827, describing a visitor's encounter with cotton and the cotton industry at almost every turn in his journey.

This is by no means a complete listing of what could or should be used effectively to make this situation vividly real. It suggests an almost infinite number of other pictures, especially of Southern scenes, then and now, and of its staple industry. It might even involve a motion picture of that industry. Even a boll of cotton has its place, and perhaps a miniature bale. Here is where the teacher is challenged to confine his selection to those aspects which are significant or become so as the learner attempts to penetrate beyond these outward manifestations or remains of human activity. Here is where experimentation is highly desirable to check upon the relative effectiveness of different vehicles—of, for example, a facsimile of a bill of sale as against the mere text itself.

ALTHOUGH the laboratory materials have been mentioned last, in such a fundamental attack upon this learning problem as has been suggested the laboratory exercises involved ought to take precedence. These however, like similar exercises in physics or chemistry, depend upon the results of a critical analysis of the nature of the fields and their realities. They depend, of course, upon which of these realities can be made available under laboratory conditions, and they must be used in accordance with the learner's experiences and environment. Any experimental handling of our social studies material is more or less out of the question, but we can set up "exercises" or "problems" comparable to the experiments in a laboratory manual. The following three exercises are illustrations taken from this same chapter, "The Beginnings of the Cotton Kingdom." They are set up for the seventh and eighth grade levels.

⁶ New York: American Book, 1934.

EXERCISES (PROBLEMS)

Imagine that you owned a plantation in the South during the days when "Cotton was King." Write a letter to a friend in England telling him about your responsibilities. If you read *The Romance of the Civil War* by Albert Bushnell Hart (New York: Macmillan, 1903) you will find first hand accounts about plantation life in the South. Use the accounts in the chapter also.

Pretend that you were the visitor from Massachusetts mentioned in this chapter. Keep a diary record of your impressions. In chapter iv of *The Cotton Kingdom* by William E. Dodd (New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1919) you will find excellent material for your diary. Perhaps you will enjoy illustrating your diary with your own drawings.

Plan to draw or paint a series of pictures to show interesting facts about the life in the South. In the book *From Columbus to Lincoln*, by Alfred E. Logie (Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1924, no. 53) you will find a first hand account of a story of a woman slave who lived at this time.

The limits of this paper do not permit any detailed references to the learning conditions or activities which these aids demand. These have been set forth in some detail in the writer's *History and the Other Social Studies in the Junior High School*,⁷ the record of six years' experimentation at the Lincoln School in New York City.

FINALLY the problem of grading must be mentioned. The materials selected for manipulation are "easy" or "difficult" according as they are close to or remote from the situation contacted, or as they represent its purely physical or sensory aspects or embody the more intangible and less readily contacted thoughts, feelings, and resolutions. A final citation, from the writer's *Workbook in American History*,⁸ of two of the exercises appropriate to this same situation will suggest the differentiation. They form part of a unit "Expansion and Slavery (to 1850)"; it is impossible here to go into detail about the total instructional problem involved.

In 1833 Daniel Webster assured an anxious Southern correspondent that "The North entertained no hostile designs toward slavery." Write the letter that Webster received and cite the proof that Webster probably used to convince the correspondent. (Both letters may be prepared if the student prefers.)

⁷ New York: Scribner, 1926; see also D. C. Knowlton, *Teachers' Manual for Since We Became a Nation*. New York: American Book, 1936.

⁸ New York: Appleton Century, 1930.

The following poems are from the writings of James Russell Lowell. In the second he submits in poetic form the reply a candidate for office is supposed to have made to an inquiring voter. To what events or conditions within the period does he refer? Explain by carefully analyzing the two selections and by quoting the portions that seem to apply most aptly.

"Leaving the Matter Open," A Tale by Homer Wilbur, A.M., and a letter in poetic form.

The first begins: "Two brothers once, an ill-matched pair
Together dwelt (no matter where)
To whom an Uncle Sam, or some
one
Had left a house and farm in common.

The second: "Dear Sir: You wish to know my notions
On sartin pints thet rile the
land:" etc.

In brief, the methodology appropriate to these disciplines is nothing more or less than the taking apart and putting together again of our situation "in its old or in a new relation." Not one of us but is conscious of the increasing difficulty of passing in review the major facts and happenings involving man and his social relations. It is comparable to the vast range of natural phenomena behind the natural sciences. Information about men in these social relations is piling up hourly, as newspapers, the radio, and magazines bear witness. To help in gaining ability to make his way intelligently through this mass of facts is the only service the social studies teacher is in a position to render the student. He never can get all the data before him—it can only be data covering selected situations. Time has served in part as a selective agency—a condition that must be appreciated. The contemporary world offers the more serious problem. It can only be understood by being resolved—that is, re-solved—by being analyzed, taken down, pulled to pieces, and re-constructed in such of its phases as have been selected for actual manipulation. It is the better part of wisdom to do this in terms of the "systematic bodies of knowledge, patterns or organization, structures of social thought, methods indispensable to intellectual operations in the field" offered by the social sciences. With the employment of new graphic methods such an effective contact calls for a new curriculum.

Recent Literature of European Economic History

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

THAT there has been a strong tendency in the last halfcentury to consider history as a study of all phases of man's past will not come as news to a single person who reads this sentence. American historians have definitely given up the idea that history is past politics and have turned their attention to a consideration of the economic, social, intellectual, and religious, as well as the political, phenomena which go to make up the course of human events.

This approach to the past makes history not only a much more real but also a much more complicated thing than it was when politics held the center of the stage. The resulting complexity has led many persons to make simple patterns out of the mass of information thrust upon them. Some have tried to cut through all the difficulties by contending that economic data provide a foundation upon which everything else is based, and that economic factors determine all development. This extreme position has few followers in scholarly circles; but there is, nevertheless, a large and evergrowing

group which believes that economic history is the best guide to the maze of historical detail and that from a study of economic developments one may arrive at an understanding of the past.

ECONOMIC HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

IF economic history is this important, it follows that it should be taught widely in secondary schools and colleges. Already most general history courses endeavor to provide an economic background for social, intellectual, and political trends, and the current successful textbooks do the same. However there is also a place for the more specialized study of economic history, either as an introduction to the study of economics or as one aspect of mankind's existence.

The increasing attention being given to economic history has brought forth several textbooks of varying degrees of excellence. For secondary schools, the choice of text seems to lie between Eleanor Perret's *Man's Work and World*¹ and Leo Huberman's *Man's Worldly Goods*.² Although they are competitors, these books are very dissimilar in character. The former is conceived, written, and published in the conventional classbook manner. The style is simple to the point of being childish, and the material is presented in a clear, precise, but withal unimaginative way. The latter book has the appearance of a mature volume and reads like one. Its style provides a combination of brilliance and clarity that delights both

This continues the series of articles dealing with important current literature on various phases of the social sciences and the social studies. It parallels, obviously, Professor Heaton's article in this issue on a major aspect of economic development. The author is assistant professor of history in Columbia University.

¹ Boston: Heath, 1935.

² New York: Harper, 1936.

young and old, and its information is built into a framework that neither the student nor the adult reader can fail to grasp. At least this is true of the first eighteen chapters, which cover the period from the middle ages to the beginning of the nineteenth century. Then unfortunately the author becomes bogged in economic theory, a discussion of Marxian doctrines, and the intricacies of modern times. What starts brilliantly gets stuck in the mud. Until this last section has been reworked the book will not be a successful text, and recourse will have to be had to another volume.

In view of this fact Miss Perret's work deserves more careful appraisal, for in spite of its unattractive physical character it reaches modern times in stride. It begins with the middle ages and arrives at the beginning of the nineteenth century in the first two hundred pages. The last three hundred pages bring the story down to date with especial emphasis upon technological developments. This fact is worthy of note, because the book was designed essentially for use in industrial high schools. Yet it should be added that the chapters are more or less self-contained units, which makes it possible to omit sections or to substitute excerpts from other books without much difficulty.

Among the textbooks in European economic history for college use that by Herbert Heaton is the most satisfactory which has so far appeared, and it has run away with the field.³ Actual classroom experience with this text has shown, however, that the book has important shortcomings. In the first place, it is too advanced for the average college student, because it takes too much information for granted. In the second place, the part since 1800 is not well organized. The author takes, in turn, industry, commerce, banking, social problems, etc., and carries the history of each from 1800 to the present. The result is that the student fails to grasp the whole economic development in the period from 1800

to 1850, or in any other period, and he fails to see the spread of economic institutions from the place of their origin, usually England, to other regions. For these reasons, some colleges have supplemented the very excellent sections of Heaton from ancient times to 1800 with Arthur Birnie, *An Economic History of Europe, 1760-1930*.⁴ This combination has certain advantages, but Birnie's work, although good, is not so well written as Heaton's and is much more elementary.

Of the more recent economic history textbooks that by Harry Elmer Barnes, *An Economic History of the Western World*,⁵ is the most likely to win the approval of practising pedagogues. This is the most comprehensive book thus far published for classroom use. It begins with prehistoric times, devotes nearly seventy large pages to the ancient period, includes brief treatments of economic development in Africa and the East, and weaves into its consideration of the European scene a discussion of economic history in the Western Hemisphere. Such an all-encompassing scheme is admittedly enormous, and one in which there is danger of becoming drowned in a sea of detail. The author has endeavored to keep his story afloat by placing his data upon a raft constructed from such "institutions" as the manorial system, commercial capitalism, finance capitalism, mechanized industry, and the like. This was a sensible procedure; and yet the execution of the plan leaves much to be desired. The book is so crowded with facts that the institutional ship rocks badly, and at times it seems likely to be swallowed up. There is certainly grave danger that beginning students will be thrown completely overboard, and the instructor himself will do well to keep a tight grip on the craft. The author would have done well to leave out much of the minu-

³ New York: Dial Press, 1930; another elementary economic history is Heinrich Sieveking, *Wirtschaftsgeschichte*, 1935, which some enterprising publisher would do well to consider bringing out in translation.

⁵ New York: Harcourt Brace, 1937.

⁴ *Economic History*. New York: Harper, 1936.

tiae and to stress the main facts of institutional growth so that his outline stood forth in sharper relief. It is feared that this book will not prove to be a very satisfactory college text. It ought however to be extremely useful to graduate students and to teachers. They will find in it a wealth of information, the latest revisionist theories, and up-to-date bibliographical references.

If Dr Barnes' book does not appear to have the makings of a successful text, this is doubly, even triply, true of *An Economic History of Europe Since 1750* by Witt Bowden, Michael Karpovich, and Abbott P. Usher.⁶ The nearly one thousand pages of this volume, crowded with the results of solid scholarship and useful bibliographical data, are, to say the least, forbidding. Moreover the writing, which is an alleviating factor in the books by Heaton and Barnes, is not lively enough to overcome the difficulty. The organization is perhaps the most hopeful of all the outward signs of the book, for an attempt has been made to tell the story of European development in the past two hundred years with reference both to chronology and institutions. Thus there are such sections as "The Age of Revolution, 1789-1832," "The Ascendancy of British Enterprise, 1832-1870," "The Struggle for World Markets, 1871-1914," which are broken down into chapters that represent the growth of Europe's economic institutions. What is particularly significant is that an attempt has been made to link up economic with political history.

The chapters on Russia are especially valuable because of the lack of similar treatments; and the sections by Professor Usher reflect that scholar's learning in the fields of banking and technology. It can be said honestly that this book is indispensable as a reference work, but it can not be stated truthfully that the volume will have much of an appeal as a text. Like altogether too many books designed for students, it is a work written essentially for college teachers and the graduate student.

⁶ New York: American Book, 1937.

In this same category of advanced European economic histories may be placed the *Economic History of Europe since the Reformation*,⁷ which is Volume V of *European Civilization, Its Origin and Development* edited by Edward Eyre. This is the work of several scholars who contributed long essays on various aspects of the subject. Among the most important of these are "Money, Finance, and Banking from the Renaissance to the Eighteenth Century" by A. G. Judges, "British Banking and Finance, 1783-1932" by R. G. Hawtrey, the two sections on money and banking by A. E. Feaverey, and "The Growth of the Population of Europe" by A. M. Carr Saunders. The parts devoted to the effect of the reformation on economic life, to agriculture, and to industry are competent but not so brilliant as studies on the same subject to be found in other places. The last five hundred pages are given over to matters not by any stretch of the imagination integral parts of economic history—law, education, militarism, and internationalism.⁸

MEDIEVAL PERIOD

PERHAPS no aspect of history is undergoing so much "revision"—the revising of formerly held opinions—as is the economic field. This is amply illustrated by studies in the medieval period and especially well by Alfons Dopsch's *The Economic and Social Foundations of European Civilization*.⁹ Although this is a translation of

⁷ New York: Oxford University Press, 1937.

⁸ The only work in the ancient period it has been thought wise to mention is the article "Economic Rationalism in Greco-Roman Agriculture" by G. Mickwitz in *English Historical Review*, October, 1937. The author comes to the conclusion that ancient farming techniques, management, and general exploitation have less in common with modern farming than have commerce and the organization of crafts. He believes that his study goes to show how impossible it is to bring ancient and modern economic history into a common system.

⁹ New York: Harcourt Brace, 1937, trans. from the German, *Die Wirtschaftlichen und Sozialen Grundlagen der Europäischen Kulturentwicklung*, by M. G. Beard and N. Marshall.

a German work that appeared nearly fifteen years ago, American students are so unfamiliar with its conclusions that a brief summary of them seems to be advisable in this review.

Dopsch is concerned almost exclusively with the pre-Carolingian period, that is, the time before 751. After a survey of the sources and modern theories of the question, he comes to the conclusion that the German tribes, which invaded Roman territories at the end of the ancient period, were not "barbarians" bent on destruction. He believes that before the fifth century they had learned to appreciate and had absorbed Roman culture and some Roman institutions and that, when the invasions took place, the Germans simply moved into the Roman world and preserved in their own interests what they found. Consequently the "fall of Rome" was not a convulsion but a slow process of increasing somnolence. From out the conflict with the Romans however there came increased power of the Frankish kings, who obtained assistance from military followers and support from the Church. Both in turn were given land and thus was founded the basis for feudalism. The Germans did not settle, he believes, on individual and isolated farms hacked out of forests, but they took over and occupied large Roman estates of arable land. Nor did the invaders endeavor to make these economically self-sufficient. They fostered commerce over the Roman roads, maintained town life, and continued to use money as a medium of exchange. Thus the so-called "dark ages" were not shrouded in impenetrable blackness, and the German invaders are exonerated from cultural felony.

A nice sequel to this story is the *Economic and Social History of Medieval Europe* by Henri Pirenne.¹⁰ This, too, is a translation, being a part of the *Histoire du moyen age* by Henri Pirenne, Gustave

Cohen, and Henri Focillon, and it is also in the revisionist tradition. Attention in this study is directed at the period from the eighth century to the beginning of modern times. The author subscribes in the introduction to Alfons Dopsch's position regarding the early middle ages and believes that the real disaster to the Germano-Roman civilization was the domination of the Mediterranean sea by the Saracens (Moslems) after the beginning of the eighth century. Henceforth "European commerce in this great maritime quadrilateral was doomed, and the whole economic movement was now directed toward Bagdad. . . . From the ninth to the eleventh century the West was bottled up." Commerce declined until it became only trade in bare necessities, like salt and iron; merchants disappeared; urban life collapsed; and gold coins gave place to Carolingian silver. Western Europe became purely agricultural and land was the sole source of subsistence and sole condition of wealth. The state based its military and administrative system henceforth on land and "feudalism, which appeared in the ninth century, was nothing but the repercussion in the political sphere of the return of society to a purely rural condition." Even the Church fell into line with its belief that the object of life was not to grow wealthy but to seek salvation even in the performance of the humblest calling.

From out this morass, into which the Saracen invasions had plunged them, Western Europeans emerged after the eleventh century. Pirenne conducts them in masterly fashion along the road back to a more diversified economy by way of changes in agriculture, the revival of commerce, the growth of towns, and the development of manufactures. One of the author's most brilliant chapters is the last, entitled "Capitalism and Mercantilism." It describes better than has ever been done before the adoption of those city-state economic policies which were to become the basis for national state economic regulation later on.

¹⁰ New York: Harcourt Brace, 1937, trans. from the French by I. E. Clegg.

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SIXTEENTH, SEVENTEENTH, AND
EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES

PERHAPS the most illuminating and revolutionary studies that have been published recently in the economic history of the first three centuries of modern times concern prices. The first of these new works to appear was Earl J. Hamilton's *American Treasure and the Price Revolution in Spain, 1501-1650*.¹¹ Professor Hamilton was able by means of painstaking research to obtain relatively accurate figures of the amounts of precious metals brought into Spain during the sixteenth century and to show their effect upon prices and wages. The amounts of bullion imported from the New World were discovered to have been less than formerly estimated, but their effects on Spanish economy were found to have been as great or greater than had ever been imagined. Large supplies of bullion began to enter Spain in the decade 1521-1530, and prices consequently soared. For the period 1501 to 1650 the rise was over 400 per cent, which is to be accounted for, in part, by a copper (vellon) inflation after 1600. Wages throughout this period lagged far behind prices. What happened to Spanish prices between 1651 and 1800, Professor Hamilton expects to reveal in a new study that is already in press. What happened to them before 1500 (more especially from 1351 to 1500) he has already explained in *Money, Prices, and Wages in Valencia, Aragon, and Navarre, 1351-1500*.¹² In this period wages were forced up during the Black Death, and prices rose in the second half of the fourteenth century because of the influx of gold from Silesia and Hungary. Yet there was no appreciable price rise at the end of the fifteenth century in Spain, contrary to the impression usually given concerning general European prices of the same epoch.

Important as Professor Hamilton's research on the history of prices has been he

has not by any means had the field exclusively to himself. In 1930 an International Scientific Committee on Price History was founded by Professor Edwin F. Gay, then of Harvard University, and by Sir William H. Beveridge of the London School of Economics to study prices from the end of the middle ages to 1800. Already two volumes have appeared as a result of the committee's activity, M. J. Elsass' work¹³ on prices and wages in Munich, Augsburg, and Würzburg, and the *Histoire des prix en France de 1500 à 1800* edited by Professor Henri Hauser.¹⁴ Both books stress the difficulties involved in arriving at conclusions in this field. They point out that it is not only necessary to obtain price data but that it is also essential to have information concerning coinage, weights and measures, wages in kind, hours of work, population, methods of marketing, political conditions, price fixing, and many other topics. So complicated is the entire problem that French scholars came to a belief that they could not show "trends" over long periods. Hence their study indicates prices and wages for specific times and places, but it does not contain charts or tables that give an idea of long range tendencies. The German volume, on the contrary, concludes that prices increased from 1500 to approximately 1622 or 1623; decreased to about 1671; and increased from then to 1800. In the first period money wages did not increase so fast as prices; in the second they did not fall so rapidly as prices (partly because of the decline in population during the Thirty Years War); and in the third they rose some but not so fast as prices. Both books are mines of information for anyone who wishes to attempt to go further with this type of study.

Fortunately for the student of eighteenth century French history, a study has been

¹¹ Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1934.

¹² Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1936.

¹³ *Umriss einer Geschichte der Preise und Löhne in Deutschland von Ausgehenden Mittelalter bis zum Beginn des Neunzehnten Jahrhunderts*. Leyden: Sijhoff, 1936.

¹⁴ Paris: Les Presses Modernes, 1936.

made of prices and wages for that period by Charles Labrousse,¹⁵ who was less hesitant in forming generalization from his data than was the group of his compatriots who worked with Henri Hauser. Professor Labrousse has come to the conclusion that from the period 1726-1741 to the period 1785-1789 there was a 65 per cent rise in prices and a 25 per cent decrease in real wages. This long term trend, as well as short term and seasonal fluctuations, all culminated in July, 1789, to produce the highest prices and the lowest wages of the century up to that time. This finding is of prime importance in interpreting the revolutionary events of that and succeeding months. However Labrousse's work is full of other implications of significance for the student of the background of the French Revolution. Rising prices and lagging wages made it essential for the peasants to obtain more land, for, if they could raise crops rather than sell their labor, they could escape the inevitable consequences of the situation. This same price factor accounts also for the tendency to collect seigniorial dues in kind rather than in money and, in part, for the desire of the bourgeoisie to buy land. Furthermore it explains why the urban workers of Paris were ready to fly to arms in defense of a Constituent Assembly that gave promise of alleviating many of the existing political abuses. In fact, Labrousse's study gives new scientific confirmation for many of the conclusions already reached by such scholars as Albert Mathiez and Georges Lefebvre, concerning the causes of the revolution.

Another question which has received considerable attention in the last few years is the significance of the Protestant reformation in the rise of modern capitalism.¹⁶

¹⁵ *Esquisse du mouvement des prix et des revenus en France au XVIII^e siècle*. 2 vol. Paris: Dalloz, 1933; see also Georges Lefebvre, "Les mouvements des prix et les origines de la Révolution Française," *Annales historiques de la Révolution Française*, July-August, 1937.

¹⁶ H. M. Robertson, *Aspects of the Rise of Economic Individualism: a Criticism of Max Weber and His School*.

There has been a tendency of late to criticize the earlier theories of Ernst Troeltsch, Max Weber, and R. H. Tawney, who held that the Protestant ethic was a potent force in establishing the virtue of profitmaking, and to suggest that "capitalism" flourished in both Catholic and Protestant areas, if the possibilities for making money were present. This trend has led P. C. Gordon Walker in his article "Capitalism and the Reformation" ¹⁷ to suggest that the entire approach of former writers to this subject was mistaken. He believes that economic changes which led to the growth of capitalism account also in large part for the Protestant revolt itself. If this is true, Protestant ethic on the subject of making money was largely a reflection and not a fundamental cause of the development of the capitalist system.

Among other studies in the economic history of the early modern period the most important of recent date are the articles ¹⁸ by John U. Nef on what he calls the early industrial revolution in England from 1540 to 1640 and *Mercantilism* by Eli Heckscher.¹⁹ Professor Nef is of the opinion that one reason why England had such an advantage in the mechanization of industry over Continental states at the end of the eighteenth century was that she had experienced such a profound industrial development at the end of the sixteenth and at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Professor Heckscher interprets mercantilism as a policy of economic state building and believes that state economic policies in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries make sense only when viewed from this angle. Bullion as a basis for state

New York: Macmillan, 1933; J. Brodrick, *The Economic Morals of the Jesuits*. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1934; A. Fanfani, *Catholicism, Protestantism, and Capitalism*. New York: Sheed and Ward, 1935.

¹⁷ *Economic History Review*, November, 1937.

¹⁸ "A Comparison of Industrial Growth in France and England from 1540 to 1640," *Journal of Political Economy*, June, August, and October, 1936, and "Prices and Industrial Capitalism in France and England, 1540-1640," *Economic History Review*, May 1937.

¹⁹ London: Allen und Unwin, 1935. 2 vols.

wealth, he thinks, never completely or even largely dominated mercantilist thought or action in England, France, or The Netherlands.

NINETEENTH AND TWENTIETH CENTURIES

WITHIN the field of nineteenth century economic history, business organization has lately attracted particular attention, and deservedly so. One of the most important studies on this subject is B. C. Hunt's *The Development of the Business Corporation in England, 1800-1867*.²⁰ The joint stock company was important in harnessing capital for the expansion of industry, commerce, and finance that took place on such a large scale after 1750, and knowledge about it is essential for a understanding of the "industrial revolution." Unfortunately perhaps, the stock company was outlawed by the Bubble Act of 1720, as Hunt explains at the beginning of his book, but gradually it was freed from legal restrictions. By 1825 the Bubble Act was a dead letter, and its repeal was accompanied by a great stock boom. The ensuing crash did not destroy the institution of the stock company; it kept on growing, adding to its structure the doctrine of legal limited liability in 1855 and 1858.

This account of the corporate company is lively and informative, but it does not exhaust the subject. The study is kept too strictly within legal limits and does not give enough attention to actual business practice. This judgment could be illustrated at length, but it is borne out, in part, by the mere fact that another American scholar, George H. Evans, could publish simultaneously a book on *British Corporation Finance, 1775-1850; A Study of Preference Shares*,²¹ and not encroach upon the material employed by Mr Hunt. This latter book is indeed a good supplement to the former, for it adds an important page to the general theme. Permission to use the preference share was granted by special Act

of Parliament after 1825, and the general right to employ it was allowed after 1863.

In the same realm of business organization and finance, there are certain other works that deserve brief mention. The most complete and careful analysis made thus far of the organization of English industry on a factory basis is the unjustly ignored *Triumph of the Factory System in England* by Hsien Ding Fong.²² An important sequel to this book is the story of business concentration is more recent times as told by Hermann Levy in his *New Industrial System: a Study of the Origins, Forms, Finance, and Prospects of Concentration in Industry*.²³ Concerning the origins of modern finance, there is the brilliant *Les bases historiques de la finance moderne*²⁴ by Robert Bigo and concerning money and monetary theory there is the *Histoire des doctrines monétaires dans ses rapports avec l'histoire des monnaies*²⁵ by René Gonnard, the first two volumes of which bring the account down to 1914. On the subject of economic crises, attention should be called to Hans Rosenfeld's "Die Weltwirtschaftskrisis von 1857-1859,"²⁶ which is not only an excellent investigation of a particular crash but is also a good guide for any one who would tackle another example of this absorbing and historically maltreated aspect of modern economy.

More prolific than that on any other single phase of economic history in the last two years has been the literature on imperialism. Works on this subject seem to fall into two main groups: (1) those which are mainly descriptive and (2) those which deal with the question, Do colonies pay? Among the former may be cited especially the third volume of *The Economic Devel-*

²⁰ Tientsin, China: Nankai Univ. Committee on Social and Economic Research, 1930.

²¹ London: Methuen, 1936.

²² Paris: A. Colin, 1933.

²³ 2 vols. Paris: Sirey, 1936.

²⁴ In *Vierteljahrschrift für Social- und Wirtschaftsgeschichte*, Beiheft 30, Mai, 8, 1934.

²⁵ Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1936.

²⁶ Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1936.

opment of the British Overseas Empire, "The Union of South Africa" by L. C. A. Knowles and C. M. Knowles;²⁷ *The Economic Development of South Africa* by Michiel Hendrik de Kock;²⁸ *South Africa, Rhodesia, and the Protectorates*,²⁹ which is the eighth volume of the *Cambridge History of the British Empire* edited by A. P. Newton, E. A. Benians, and Eric A. Walker; and *French Policy and Developments in Indochina*³⁰ by Thomas E. Ennis. All of these books are mines of information, and two of them belong to series that are first rate sources for economic information concerning the British Empire.

Among the works that attack the problem of whether or not colonies pay the most elaborate are *The Balance Sheets of Imperialism, Facts, and Figures on Colonies* and *A Place in the Sun*³¹ by Grover Clark. The author has attempted, as the title of the first volume suggests, to draw a business balance sheet of imperialism in order to determine whether or not there are profits from colonial trade and investment, and, if so, whether or not they are large enough to offset costs of establishing and maintaining political dominion in overseas territories. After an extensive marshaling of figures he concludes that imperialism is a losing proposition. Is his procedure a sound one? Has he included all items in his accounts? Is a balance sheet necessarily a sure index of a business' worth?

In answer to the first question, it might be suggested that it is not correct to measure what is not strictly a business venture with a business yardstick. Nations have colonies for many non-economic reasons, such as sources of man power and raw ma-

terials in case of war, as objects of national pride, as strategic bases for protecting trade, and as places for settlement. But let us suppose that Mr Clark's approach is justified in that it throws light on a very obscure question, and then let us ask the question of whether he has entered all the items in his ledger. Obviously he has not, for no information can be obtained about many of them. Mr Clark and other authors who have attempted similar studies limit their investigations largely to trade, investments, and governmental expenditures. If there had been no imperialism, would we have all the products that now make life more agreeable from colonial areas? If it could be imagined that we would, a further question could be asked as to whether or not the supplies of them would have been steady enough to satisfy our demanding economy. If the balance sheet is against imperialism, could it not be said that the debits should simply be added to the cost of colonial goods? Moreover, Mr Clark does not take into consideration a very important aspect of the entire problem, which was suggested by the writings of Lenin and Bukharin on the subject of imperialism. To what extent do the capitalist mother nations have to get rid of "surplus capital," by loss, if necessary, to keep the capitalist system going? This anomalous question is of prime significance, for, if a nation simply hoards capital, prices rise, buying slackens, and production declines. Hence losses to maintain production may not be losses at all! And, finally, is a balance sheet a true indication of a business' worth? It is not necessarily so even in the world of affairs. The potentialities of a concern are its main assets, and these Mr Clark ignores almost entirely.

Some of these points and many others have already been made by another author who is interested in the same question—Melvin M. Knight in his *Morocco as a French Economic Venture*.³² In a section

²⁷ London: Routledge, 1936.

²⁸ London: King, 1936.

²⁹ New York: Macmillan, 1936.

³⁰ Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1936.

³¹ New York: Columbia Univ. Press and New York: Macmillan, both 1936; see also Ida C. Greaves, "A Modern Colonial Fallacy," *Foreign Affairs*, July, 1936, and Constant Southworth, *The French Colonial Venture*, London: King, 1931.

³² New York: Appleton Century, 1937.

entitled, "What Business Measures Do Not Measure" he makes the very poignant remark that "a real balance sheet is a statement of assets and liabilities, in money terms, as of a given date. Hence, it is of limited use in appraising the value of an imperial relationship between countries, in which neither the dominant nation nor its citizens owns the other in a commercial sense." This pricking of a balloon is only part of the value of Professor Knight's excellent little book. He has made a penetrating study of French policy in a protectorate where the "open door" was guaranteed by international agreement. Professor Knight explains how the French have endeavored to cope with this situation and with the problem of imperial trade. His analysis of the workings of the quota system in the realm of colonial commerce is little short of classic.

NATIONAL AND MISCELLANEOUS HISTORIES

WHILE the economic historian is interested in the great patterns of development that know no political boundaries, he is no less interested in national economic trends that either go to make up the larger picture or to form patterns of their own. For this reason he will welcome the great collection of economic histories of the leading countries which is being prepared under the direction of Georg Brod-nitz. Among the volumes which have already appeared, it will be well to mention E. Baasch, *Holländische Wirtschaftsgeschichte*;³³ the first volume of Alfred Doren's *Italienische Wirtschaftsgeschichte*;³⁴ to the renaissance; and Henri Sée, *Französische Wirtschaftsgeschichte*.³⁵ These are all of a very high order and provide a better presentation of the material than can be found in any other works. The published volumes on England, Russia, and Denmark are also excellent, and augur well for the forth-

coming treatises on Norway, Belgium, the United States, modern Russia, and modern Italy. It is hoped that some enterprising publisher will undertake the translation of these volumes into English. Those who read French and not German will be pleased to learn that A. Colin is to bring out within the current year a French edition of the late Professor Sée's masterly work.

Other national economic histories that deserve mention are Arthur Birnie's *An Economic History of the British Isles*,³⁶ which was reviewed in this journal last March; a new edition of the first volume of *The Economic History of England* by Ephraim Lipson, "The Middle Ages";³⁷ and a new edition of John Harold Clapham's *The Economic Development of France and Germany, 1815-1914*.³⁸ Attention should be called also to *The Northern Countries in World Economy—Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden*³⁹ edited by B. Suviranta, which is an economic survey of the countries mentioned in the title; to Carl T. Schmidt's *The Plough and the Sword*,⁴⁰ a deprecatory account of fascist agricultural policy in Italy; and to Germanicus (pseud.), *Germany, the Last Four Years*.⁴¹

Into the category of the miscellaneous might be tossed almost innumerable titles, but for the sake of emphasis only two items will be included here. The first is in the way of news—the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*⁴² has been published in a new edition of eight volumes to sell at \$45 in place of the original \$112.50. At last this valuable work has been brought down within the reach of school libraries and perhaps even within the budgetary compass of scholars. For anyone seriously interested

³³ London: Methuen, 1935, reviewed March, 1937.

³⁷ 7th ed. rev. and enl. New York: Macmillan, 1937.

³⁸ 4th ed. New York: Macmillan, 1936.

³⁹ Helsingfors: Otava, 1937.

⁴⁰ New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1938.

⁴¹ New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1937.

⁴² New York: Macmillan, 1937.

³⁴ Jena: Gustav Fischer, 1937.

³⁵ Jena: Gustav Fischer, 1934.

³⁶ 2 vols., Jena: Gustav Fischer, 1930-36.

in economic history, either as a teacher, or as a student, or as a writer, it is indispensable. The second item in the miscellaneous category is Miriam Beard's *A History of the Business Man*.⁴³ This is an interesting attempt to portray concepts upon which the business man operates, and to point out the connection between business and politics. Viewed in the large, the business man, Miss Beard believes, seeks wealth and profit without any, or at least with very little regard for social consequences. He seeks political power and generally obtains it, but he uses it for short-run advantages to himself.

FIELDS TO CONQUER

PRODIGIOUS as is the literature of economic history there are still fields to conquer. There is need for a first rate, general economic history textbook for secondary schools and a good elementary textbook for colleges. If these could be pro-

⁴³ New York: Macmillan, 1938.

vided, the place of economic history in the curricula of educational institutions would stand a chance to take on the importance that it deserves. Furthermore, there are many aspects of economic history about which it is necessary to know a great deal more than we do now. There is no general history of insurance. There is no general history of the techniques of European agriculture, although there are a hundred and one good treatises on landholding. There is no general history of economic crises. Industrial and commercial inventions of the last century have not been written up in a comprehensive fashion.⁴⁴ International economic relations have been only moderately well described. And what is most important of all, there is a crying need for the integration of economic history with the social, political, and intellectual development of mankind. To accomplish this job without *a priori* conclusions remains the great task of the present generation.

⁴⁴ See C. G. Abbot, *Great Inventions*, Washington: Smithsonian Institution Series, 1932.

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Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

AMERICA'S way of life and development has always seemed to Americans as different and even unique in the world, but nevertheless we have never found for it any adequate definition, description, or analysis. The lack of a contemporary restatement of our corporate problems and ideals has been apparent for some time and becomes increasingly apparent as we move, both in time and in situation, further and further away from the great creative period of our governmental life. On this ground that "our American traditions and ideals need to be restated and reinterpreted in the light of new economic and social conditions," *Harpers Magazine* some months ago announced a contest and has now awarded a thousand-dollar prize to David Cushman Coyle for his essay on "The American Way," which is printed in the February issue. This is no place to undertake a complete abstract of all that Mr Coyle says, and in any case an attempt to abstract it would be very unsatisfactory, for the article itself is an abstract of the writer's whole philosophy and understanding of past history, of present conditions, and of future goals of desirable conduct and development. It is a remarkably clear and sustained effort to envisage all the past in the light of the present and to see the present in the light of its own past and in the hope of its own future.

This one article does not however represent the only contribution that *Harpers* plans to present for the thoughtful consideration of its readers on this all important subject. It has accepted for publication

three others of the articles submitted for the American Way contest, one, at least to be further to the Right and another, the next to be published, to be a voice from the Left. The three articles thus accepted for future publication were written by Carl Dreher of Hollywood, California, Carl Landauer of the University of California, and Gerald W. Johnson of the editorial staff of the Baltimore *Evening Sun*.

NEEDLESS to say to those of you who remember his article "Balance What Budget?" in *Harpers* last October and discussed in this department last November, Mr Coyle considers fascism and communism as two unmitigated evils offering absolutely no sensible choice between themselves. His road lies along what might be called the middle ground. For myself I have never quite understood that expression "middle ground" as applied in this connection. Of course it can be so considered, if one is also willing in the same way to consider the direction West as lying along the middle ground between North and South. On a round globe North and South do at some point meet each other and become identical with each other, but the direction West meets that line of identity only to cross it at right angles and to disappear immediately into the distance. Fascism and communism meet each other in their identical conception of a totalitarian state in which the life and personal and political liberty of the individual is wholly submerged in what is conceived to be the life and welfare of the state; fascism and communism, in theory

and in practice, deny the possibility of combining liberty and security in our modern world. On the other hand democracy, with theory and practice, puts its whole trust in just that possibility, and it is that possibility which is discussed by Mr Coyle. Whatever may be your knowledge of past history or convictions concerning the present and the future of your country, this and the succeeding essays warrant your attention.

Mr Coyle presents what must be even for his bitterest critic an absorbing discussion, in spite of the fact that here and there his facts and interpretations are not in accord with the current finding of professional historians and theorists. Perhaps the best example of this, as being quite outside the emotional implications of the present conflict of opinion concerning the best way out of the present national catastrophe, is his assumptions of the older belief that until 1890 the presence of cheap or free land in the West directly affected current labor problems in the East, and therefore that the closing of the frontier at the end of the nineteenth century is an important direct factor in our present problems. Although, with reservations, that represents roughly one aspect of the Turner thesis and has found its way into textbooks, recent researches show that such a direct effect was impossible, since cheap or free lands were not, after the earliest period, widely available to an industrial laborer or even to an unprosperous farmer, owing among other things to the costs of transportation and of materials to maintain life for the first season and to establish a productive farmstead.

AMERICAN WAY?

DEFINING the liberty of the individual carried to its extreme as anarchy, and government control of the action of its citizens carried to its extreme as tyranny, or, if you wish to use the usual twentieth century term, as dictatorship, Mr Coyle concludes that "that government is best which governs strongly enough to protect liberty and not so strongly as to destroy it."

He then describes liberty as "not what the law allows, but what you can do in real life without being stopped beforehand or punished afterward," and he sees liberty as conditioned by security to work and enjoy the benefits of work and by freedom of that opportunity which exists "in proportion to wholesome restraint."

To obtain and secure those conditions under which both liberty and security may flourish is, then, the duty and responsibility of government, and, in Mr Coyle's opinion, of national government. "If practical ways can be found by which security may be established and liberty protected, the Government may with as much reason direct economic action for that purpose as it may cut a ditch through Panama or dam the Colorado River." With science ever increasing the speed with which it produces methods and machines that inevitably turn all our traditional habits and customs upside down, those "practical ways" must be sought diligently and with minds rendered liberal and acute by the dire necessity that is upon us.

TODAY it becomes forever too late to make that adjustment which yesterday might have served but could not be put into operation on account of its too radical departure from traditional thought and development. Swiftly as we seem to have changed our cultural beliefs and habits, nevertheless, there is a great cultural lag between, on the one hand, our social philosophy and institutions, and, on the other, the marvelous mechanical and scientific inventions of our period. Yet a free society may enjoy the fruits of invention, and only a free society can nourish the adventurous minds able to reach out into the great unknown for new ideas and inventions. The necessity for speeding up our rate of social invention or slowing down the rate of mechanical invention is evident, if we are to escape an increase of the grave disorders of our corporate life, an increase to the breaking point and beyond it. If, however, we do escape and "attain a workable relation between tech-

nology and freedom it will be only by . . . a stubborn determination to hold on our way at all costs."

WHAT would a democratic high-technology system be if we could attain it? Mr Coyle thinks it would be, in slightly different proportions, a combination of the various and contradictory elements in our present national life. First he considers the element of the classic capitalist system as represented by "small and medium sized business and agriculture" and "governed by free competition and the law of supply and demand." He believes that in a workable system of democracy this element must be expanded and protected from the cramping influences of big business. His second consideration is "finance-capitalism, or big business and high finance," which he thinks would shrink in such a system of democracy on account of restrictive laws and taxation—part of it breaking into smaller units and part of it, especially certain natural monopolies, passing to public ownership. The third part to be considered is the "public service" which already exists and which would be extended markedly. "This movement has been going on for more than a century, and modern conditions indicate that it will continue." The fourth is private non-profit-making enterprise, college, churches, clubs, hospitals, foundations, and other organizations, of whose extension he seems, to me, unaccountably optimistic. "In fact, although the present crisis requires us to think chiefly of governmental means to adjust the economic system, in the long run the chief feature of a successful adjustment to technology will be the devotion of surplus money and labor to constructive cultural work, in which private organizations will play a principal part." Fifth is the cooperative movement, which he represents as a variety of capitalism whose future "is not yet clear."

He is opposed to the kind of bureaucratic planning that might concern itself with the number of miniature golf courses or mah

jong sets to be produced and which, having produced them a year too late, might undertake to make us play miniature golf or mah jong in order to absorb the supply! "The great plans are the national policies, such as the policies of taxation and spending, the conservation of land and forest, and the control of financial manipulations. These policies do not regiment any large number of people but, right or wrong, they cause things to happen." He thinks too that "the solution waits for the people to be willing to make sacrifices and to pay taxes on such a scale as to make our present laws effective."

Throughout the article the author uses telling quotations from men out of our past, such men as Edmund Burke, Benjamin Franklin, Daniel Webster, and Abraham Lincoln. His critics might charge that this smacks too much of argument by appeal to authority, a kind of argument grown less and less convincing with the passing years; but nevertheless his use is immensely effective. My own favorite quotation is the one from Lincoln's first inaugural address: "Why should there not be a patient confidence in the ultimate justice of the people? Is there any better or equal hope in the world?"

TO THE RIGHT?

EVEN granting, though, that in the main we can agree—and we can't—on what are to be the broad outlines of national purpose and general methods, we are still at a loss for any program of exact means, times, and ways of application. Opinion continues to argue, talk, and write about the matter; each day's papers, of whatever political persuasion, contain a mass of conflicting evidence; and each month's magazines yield articles written by men well equipped for satisfaction in their own opinions but unfortunately never agreeing among themselves. In the end we may be left with our private opinions as confused as Max Lerner, in "Mr Roosevelt, Ringmaster," in the *Nation* of January 15, represents the President's ad-

vices as being: "to those who urge him to undertake a deliberate program of industrial control, his answer is that all his economic advisers have differing versions of the economic picture, and their advice cancels out. There is some force in this. There are inflationists and deflationists, those who think that only a drastic economic plan will be effective and those who feel that it would be incredibly naive to base an economic plan on the scanty knowledge of the detailed industrial and financial processes that Washington now possesses, those who would break up the big business structures and those who would leave them alone."

"Folly of Industrial Planning: Why the Government Could Not Regulate Production" is discussed in the February *Harpers* by L. M. Graves, who has had three years experience within the government service at Washington, most of which was spent as an economist in the planning division of the AAA, and he has conducted various researches concerned with production planning for the department of agriculture and the national resources committee. He is concerned about the practical, administrative difficulties in deciding at what levels to stabilize output—what to consider the "normal" output of various commodities year by year and season by season. The author says soberly: "The experienced statistician recognizes that projecting past trends into the future is very risky business. Trends change frequently and without notice." As Mr Coyle put it in the "American Way," the government ought not find itself "perplexed about what colors of lipstick shall be supplied to the ladies of Atlanta," and certainly it should not find itself confronted with the necessity of either forcing the sale of a lot of outdated machinery, for instance, or taking the financial loss it represents. Then there is the question of fixing a price that will move the goods and provide for repaying the costs of production, without calling on the government to make good financial losses due to errors in judgment—errors that are absorbed by private business

through the bankruptcy courts. He also discusses the difficulties of attempting to set quotas for different manufacturing producers, individual or sectional, not only in the light of possible political pressures but in the light of the question of permitting or preventing the production of a notably improved product that would create such a popular demand as to upset all governmental calculations in that field.

Other questions considered in this month's magazines, all on the conservative side, are "The Undistributed Profits Tax: and What to Do About It" by Maurice Wertheim in *Harpers*, "This Business Relapse" by Leonard P. Ayres in the *Atlantic*, and "Taxation with Representation" by John T. Flynn in the winter issue of the *Virginia Quarterly Review*.

The second of the series of articles in *Harpers* is "Business Finds Its Voice" by S. H. Walker and Paul Sklar, dealing with the motives and methods of using motion pictures and combined efforts. "During the depression the American people turned against the men who manage American business. . . . As business men saw it, certain of the prerogatives that management had always possessed were threatened with usurpation." This article continues the discussion of what they have undertaken to do about it.

OR THE LEFT?

ON the other hand the Marxian view of the case is offered in the winter issue of *Science and Society* as "The Frustration of Technology" by Bernhard J. Stern, who was co-author of the recent report of the national resources committee, *Technological Trends and National Policy*. His marshalling of facts is to be noted. "The annals of technological invention are replete with evidence of protracted delays in the acceptance of innovations that have been of inestimable value to mankind." Capitalism, dependent as it is upon the private profit motive, has accepted, refused, or delayed the introduction of inventions on the

basis of what seemed to be its own profit or loss in the transaction. "The technical innovations of the industrial revolution were introduced with callous disregard of the havoc they wrought in the lives of the workers." He passes over the workers' opposition to technological change that might curtail their own immediate employment on the good socialist ground that under capitalism their peril is very real, and he cites a long list of occasions on which a technological advance was resisted by capitalists who would thereby be thrown into a position of unsuccessful competition. "Capitalist industry has moreover been unable to keep abreast of technique because of the periodic crises inherent in capitalistic economy. In the midst of a crisis, with available machinery operating at but a fraction of its capacity, little new equipment incorporating invention is introduced. . . . Deliberate planning was undertaken to restrict production and thus prevent technological expansion." Citing the "acceleration of technological change under a socialist economy in the Soviet Union" as an example of what may be accomplished, he thinks that the "circumstances arising from capitalism's failure to utilize techniques adequately and to avoid crises which smother technological advance are avoided by the very organization of socialist economy. . . . Capitalism has barely acknowledged, let alone satisfied, the potential needs of the expanding personalities of the masses of the people. As these potentialities are released by a socialist economy in which the masses are participants, the possibilities of technological advance to satisfy their requirements are well-nigh limitless."

LEFTIST to be sure, but far to the Right of this view of things, is "The Attack on Monopoly" in the January 8 *Nation*, directed as it is against "the whole impasse of American capitalism that runs beyond campaign thunderings and political snap judgments." It analyzes into three factors the "central approach" to our present lack

of economic health. First is the control of industry by powerful corporations who manage to control output so that "most of our prices are what Gardiner C. Means has called 'administered' prices, with a resulting lack of price flexibility and an incapacity for change as required by changing needs." Second is that these same corporations have made huge gains by profiting from the savings of technology and charging large prices instead of lowering prices and thereby increasing output and pumping back into purchasing power the savings due to increased invention and efficiency. The third cause of our sickness is envisaged as due to the high concentration of our industrial and financial resources among a comparative few of our population. As for the cure: "Obviously no ready-made pattern will fit these varied needs. What the Administration needs is not a slogan but a program. Fortunately it has the materials for one in the studies of the National Resources Committee, in the WPA studies of recent changes in industrial techniques, in the files of the NRA, and in the series of excellent studies of price policy made in the Labor Department under Walton Hamilton and soon to be published. It should use them."

As a supplement to its regular issue of February 4 the *New Republic* issued a special section on "The Depression" in which it presents its analysis of "What Has Happened?" "Whose Fault Is It?" "How It May Be Explained," "What Government Can Do," and "How Long It Will Last." There could be no possible fairness in my undertaking to sum up its conclusions, because this is a careful and detailed examination of the situation from a particular point of view. It is the diagnosis rather than the prescription, and as such deserves consideration. The point of view of the *New Republic* is easier to indicate by a short quotation from "Must Wages be Cut" in its issue of February 9, although even this may be misleading if the reader does not take careful account of the fact that the *New Republic* is dealing with the great

output of the steel and other heavy industries whose problems are quite special and conceivably to be dealt with in an entirely different manner. After a survey of the question of wages in their relation to current prices it closes with: "The problem of how to assure the employers in the mechanized industries enough larger sales so that they will make the necessary price reductions, and how to assure the building workers enough more employment so that they would be willing to take reduction of hourly rates. Difficulty in giving assurance of this kind, in spite of the knowledge by all competent experts concerning the price policy that ought to be followed, is one of the most serious troubles of an unplanned economy."

WHICHEVER DIRECTION

WHATEVER is to be done must be done within the limitations of the human material that the government can draw unto itself. In the last analysis everything depends on the kind of men and women to whom the government has turned and must turn for a permanent civil service that will help in arriving at definite plans and in working out plans after they are made. The question of the proper method of selecting such men and women has been a matter of struggle and debate. Most politicians have for some years given lip service to the cause of the "merit system"; but to "patronage" has gone the whole-hearted service of their hands. Now comes a writer with a good word to say for patronage. E. Pendleton Herring contributes "The Future of Patronage" to the winter *Virginia Quarterly Review*. "If patronage were all evil, the task of the reformer would be simpler. There is something to be said on both sides, but who will plead for the devil? My thesis is this: political patronage has persisted despite generations of criticism because it has met, however faultily, a real need of our governmental system." He thinks that, since patronage helps a politician in office to build up his political support independent of pressure minorities, it

serves a useful purpose and can be eliminated only by the "centralization of authority in the Federal government and the development of disciplined national party organizations held together by powerful leadership." However he fails to note that either the cart or the horse can go first in that outfit. The elimination of "political spoils" as an objective, if it can be done, might force adherence to national parties on some basis of political theory and recognized political objectives rather than the hope of spoils.

In that connection, one might read, though, "The Decline of English Politics" by William G. Peck in the same magazine. The author's reasons for the decline are wholly different, but in a cynical frame of mind one might consider the bearing of England's very successful civil service reform on all this. I don't, but one might!

FOR TEACHERS ONLY

OBJECTIVE standards of excellence are and always have been hard to come by, and into this difficulty teachers and administrators have run in trying to raise and define minimum standards for teacher's licenses. "I Didn't Have a Teacher's License" in the February *Harpers* records one teacher's difficulties with the system.

The other article I want to mention in this section is in the *Atlantic*, "Are Children Vegetables? A Parental Note on Education" by Wilson Follett. It deals, by implication, with the question of what is after all the ultimate responsibility of parents in the upbringing of their children. Do read it—for the memory will comfort you the next time you are talking to a very difficult parent.

MEN AND REPUTATIONS

ROOSEVELT'S Place in History" is discussed in the February *Events* by Charles A. Beard, who thinks that if no radical change occurs one way or the other in our economic life "his place in history

is more likely to be akin to that of Jackson or Theodore Roosevelt than that of Washington, Jefferson, or Lincoln; that is, spectacular but scarcely important." If there is a major war "there is ground for believing that he will speedily get the United States into the fray. That he could carry the country with lofty sentiments is highly probable. Americans are the prize sentimentalists of the known universe." As for the outcome of any war Dr Beard considers it fairly certain that America "will be euchred at the peace conference, whether they lose or win the war," and in the reaction "President Roosevelt might well find himself on the way to a third-rate place in history with Wilson rather than to immortality with Washington and Jefferson." Yet by his public discussion in messages and addresses, with vigor and rare power of expression of "more fundamental problems of American life and society than all the other Presidents combined" he has made "a more profound impression upon the political, social, and economic thought of America than any or all of his predecessors. If so, then he will occupy a place of his own in the long judgment of history."

Another view is presented by the February *Social Frontier* in "Roosevelt the Reactionary." "It won't do to remind us that Mr Roosevelt speaks very well and that the Tories hate him. The *Social Frontier* has quoted him with approval and expects to do so in the future." It poses the question: "What is a man who *talks* in progressive terms but *behaves* like a conservative?" And it gives the answer: "A reactionary."

"The Riddle of Hitler" is discussed in the February *Harpers* by Stephen H. Roberts who represents him as "a dreamer, a creature of emotion, a man of ordinary mental caliber, a gripping orator, a simple-living *Führer* with an almost divine sense of his mission" who has become a "myth" in his own lifetime, and who, living "in a mental world of his own" has brought Germany and the world to a sorry pass. In the

February *Atlantic* Emil Ludwig would blame it all on "The German Mind," but even those of us who did not long ago give up believing in any national "this" or "that" will have difficulty in believing this particular line of exposition.

The same issue of the *Atlantic* prints three other articles of biographical interest, one for movie enthusiasts "Charles Laughton and I" by his wife, Elsa Lanchester, and the second "Bernard Shaw at Eighty" by Edmund Wilson, dealing with his social philosophy and his art. The other is of less contemporary interest "Get Down You Fool!" by Alexander Woolcott, which tells two biographical stories of the late Mr Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes. The first, from which the title is taken, deals with the remark made to President Lincoln by young Holmes, then a young lieutenant colonel in the Union army, when Lincoln exposed himself unnecessarily during a tour of inspection of the defenses of the beleaguered city of Washington.

"John C. Calhoun" by Andrew Nelson Lytle in the winter *Southern Review* is concerned with the ideas rather than personality and the events of personal life of the foremost spokesman of the South's policy of nullification and theory of state rights. "There was no logical answer to Calhoun's logic. There was, nevertheless, an answer. . . . A ball of iron hurtled over the water in the harbor outside Charleston. . . . The hour was dawn, but it was not the beginning of a new day."

ANOTHER Southern leader—of an earlier and wiser day—is discussed by Clarence Poe in the January *South Atlantic Quarterly*, "Nathaniel Macon," pioneer and democrat who, fearing just those evil effects of our present concentration of population, believed that "no man should be able to hear his nearest neighbor's dog bark" and, although seeing clearly the difficulties and the weary unrest of democracy, said "I prefer the tempest of liberty to the calm of despotism."

NOTES AND NEWS

NEW YORK

The Social Science Section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education devoted a session on December 10 to the theme "The Community and the Social Studies." Harold Fields, chairman of the department of social studies at the Benjamin Franklin High School, New York City, described and evaluated the "Benjamin Franklin High School Community Experiment." Winfield L. Rice, acting director of civics for the public schools of New York City, described and evaluated the recently instituted ferry project as an instrument of community study. Assistant Superintendent of Schools Benjamin Greenberg, Joseph C. Driscoll of Erasmus Hall High School, and Eugene Canuto, representing Commissioner Ellsworth Buck, also contributed to this program. Michael Levine, of the New Utrecht High School, was chairman of the meeting.

The general meeting of the New York Society, held on February 18, was devoted to the social studies. The speakers were Howard E. Wilson of Harvard University, and Roy W. Hatch of the New Jersey State Teachers College, Montclair. Dr Wilson discussed "The Community as a Social Studies Laboratory," and Professor Hatch discussed "The Teaching of Controversial Issues." Assistant superintendent Frederic Ernst acted as chairman of the meeting.

Joseph C. Driscoll, president of the Association of Civics Teachers of New York, has issued an 8-page mimeographed report of the association during 1936-1937. Programs have given attention to the radio,

newspapers, films, and to civic and professional problems.

WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA

The Western Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies held its winter meeting at the Downtown Y.M.C.A. in Pittsburgh on Thursday evening, January 13. The program included a dinner and addresses by Dean Henry W. Holmes of the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University, and Dr Howard E. Wilson, Secretary-Treasurer of the National Council for the Social Studies. The attendance was about 100, and much interest was manifested by those present. Public announcement was made of the coming of the National Council to Pittsburgh on November 25 and 26 for its annual convention of 1938.

The two addresses of the evening were heartily applauded. Dean Holmes spoke on "The Social Studies as Intellectual Discipline," and Dr Wilson on "A Method in the Social Studies." Many participated in the open forum discussion following the addresses.

The officers of the Western Pennsylvania Council for the official year of 1937-1938, are Arthur G. Henry, Dormont High School, president; Eulalia Schramm, Carrick High School, vice president; R. O. Hughes, Department of Curriculum Study, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, secretary-treasurer; P. W. Hutson, University of Pittsburgh; F. F. Holbrook, Western Pennsylvania Historical Society; George Hart, Bridgeville High School; Anne H. Bowes, Peabody High School; and Ger-

trude Barthol, Westinghouse High School, members of the board of directors.

R.O.H.

ILLINOIS

The executive committee of the new Illinois Council for the Social Studies met at Decatur on January 15, with C. C. Loew, D. R. Alter, Mabel I. Buchholz, William Habberton, Robert Keohane, and R. B. Thurston in attendance. Ray Lussenhop, president of the Chicago Council for the Social Studies, and Julian Aldrich, secretary of the Missouri Council, sat with the committee.

A constitution has been drafted and will be submitted to members in a postcard poll. The first annual business meeting will be held at Normal on Saturday morning, April 2, at eleven o'clock. At two o'clock, following a luncheon, W. Russell Shull, executive director, the National Forum, will speak. Visual techniques will be used. The chairman of the local arrangements committee is Robert B. Ellwood, University High School, Illinois State Normal University.

Every teacher of social studies in Illinois is invited to join the Council; charter membership is possible through April 2. Annual dues of one dollar are payable to R. B. Thurston, 455 Columbia Place, East Saint Louis, or to the Secretary, Chicago Council for the Social Studies.

C.C.L.

MISSOURI

The State Superintendent of Schools, Lloyd W. King, has matured plans for a state student assembly on March 19, 1938, at the State Capitol in Jefferson City. Examinations will be given high school pupils in each county on February 19 to select county representatives. The assembly will consider the unicameral legislature as a possible innovation in Missouri.

The Jefferson City, Missouri, Social Studies Council has been issuing a quarterly mimeographed bulletin during the year.

The second number is devoted in part to reports on the St Louis meeting of the National Council and in part to articles. Miss Blanche Camden of the junior high school is editor.

E.E.

OKLAHOMA

The History Section of the State Education Association met February 11 at Oklahoma City. The speakers at the luncheon session, held jointly with the International Relations Group, were Ursula P. Hubbard, of the Carnegie Foundation, and D. L. Sachar, of the University of Illinois. In the afternoon session, over which Nelle E. Bowman presided, F. A. Balyeat of the University of Oklahoma described "Recent Trends in the Teaching of Social Studies," Watt Stewart, of the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, spoke on "Modern Peru," and A. L. Sachar on "New Worlds for Old."

DALLAS, TEXAS

The Dallas District Council for the Social Studies has issued the second number of its *Social Studies Bulletin*, a 10-page mimeographed summary of meetings, articles, and reviews. The editor is Winnie D. Vance, Woodrow Wilson High School, Dallas.

A. B.

SOCIAL STUDIES REFERENCES

R. M. Tryon contributes a list of twenty-five recent books and articles in the social sciences to the February issue of *The School Review* and calls attention to other published lists. Edith P. Parker also lists fourteen titles for geography.

SOCIAL STUDIES GUIDES

The 1937-38 catalog of publications of the American Association of University Women includes study guides in education, international relations, the arts, and social studies. Among the last are Graham A. Laing, *Economics in a Changing World*

(50 cents); *Scientific Consumer Purchasing* (60 cents); Elizabeth S. May, *Social Welfare* (50 cents); Elizabeth S. May, *Government, Business and the Individual* (75 cents); Caroline F. Ware, *The Modern Economy in Action* (50 cents); *A Changing Political Economy As It Affects Women* (50 cents); and a *Community Projects Bulletin* (free on request).

For these, or for information about the Association, its research service, lending library, or its other publications, address 1634 I Street, NW, Washington.

AUDIO-VISUAL DEVELOPMENTS IN ENGLAND

The Illustrations Committee of the Historical Association has sponsored a set of *Historical Pictures* covering the history of England from Tudor times to 1815. They are edited by F. J. Weaver and published by Thomas Nelson and Sons at 1s 3d per packet. There are three sets (or packets) of these illustrations, each consisting of thirty-two reproductions in black and white and two in color: *English History Tudor Period*; *English History Stuart Period*; and *English History Eighteenth Century*. They are printed on 8" x 10" paper, corresponding approximately in size to the *McKinley Illustrated Topics*, usually with from two to four illustrations to the page but containing no textual matter other than the titles and sources of the pictures. The illustrations appear to have been taken from the beautifully illustrated series known as *The Parallel Histories* published within recent years by the same firm. Mr Weaver is one of the authors of these ten volumes, which are designed for secondary school pupils eleven years or more of age. They form a course of study unique in that, following the two introductory volumes, *Book A, Pre-history*, and *Book B, Minos to Constantine*, there are separate volumes *I A* and *I B*, *II A* and *II B*, etc. entitled *England and Europe*, and *Europe and England* dealing with the four chronological periods into which the history has been divided.

C. H. Gerred, who is another of the authors, is chairman of the Illustrations Committee which has just prepared a *Memorandum on Illustrations in Textbooks* for the Association for the December 1937 issue of *History*. The memorandum is an attempt to lay down principles governing the selection and function of textbook illustrations. These have been thoroughly exemplified in the series of *Historical Pictures* sponsored by the Association. Mr Gerred welcomes further suggestions on this problem.

Many of these same illustrations are also to be found in another recent textbook series published by Thomas Nelson and Sons, known as *The House of History*. The five books in the series are entitled, *The Basement (Earliest Man to the Fall of Rome)*, the *First, Second, Third, and Fourth Storey*, bringing the history down to 1930. This series covers the same age range, eleven years and upwards.

At the annual meeting of the Historical Association held at King's College, London, one session was devoted to "The Place of the Wireless Lesson in History Teaching and How Best to Use It."

From December 20 through January 12 the *News Chronicle* sponsored a Schools Exhibition, "the first comprehensive exhibition staged in Great Britain," covering every facet of school life and interest. This attempt to visualize "the schools of today and tomorrow" was endorsed by an advisory council including such persons as Julian Huxley and H. G. Wells. It was paralleled by a series of conferences in which consideration of the film and drama played a prominent part.

E. K. Milliken, headmaster of Lansing House School for boys at Lowestoft, described some of his experiences in the use of handwork in teaching history. He has assembled a remarkable collection of historical figures illustrating every period of history and has worked out at Lowestoft a syllabus which calls for the making of models or dioramas by his pupils as an in-

tegral part of their work in history, geography, and literature. He exhibited a model of a section of a Saxon settlement made by boys between the ages of seven and eleven years with the assistance of the teacher. He and his wife have in preparation a book on their methods, for teachers, which will be entitled *From Age to Age*. Commenting on such books as Mrs Parker's and Miss Stevenson's, Mr Milliken writes: "We have found them useful for IDEAS but we consider the handwork advocated far too crude, inaccurate and flimsy—also in many respects too complicated. Our aim is accuracy, simplicity and solidity." Mr Milliken has published an article describing his efforts to develop this type of work over a period of ten years in the September 1937 issue of *History*.

D. C. KNOWLTON

VISUAL AIDS

The Educational Screen for January includes much material of interest to teachers who use visual material. Annette Glick Byrne answers the question "Why Visual Aids?" Ellen S. Woodward, in "Learning at a Glance," describes several WPA museum extension projects which have provided visual materials for schools. In Pittsburgh, relief maps, architectural models—tracing the history of the home in Europe and America—, plates showing the development of costume in the Western world, and puppet and marionette dramatizations of such topics as the story of anthracite coal have been developed. In New York, under the sponsorship of the Board of Education, one project has assembled maps and pictures relating to Latin America, and has made possible a great extension of the film and slide service of the American Museum of Natural History. Activities in Kansas and California are also noted.

In the same issue W. Gayle Starnes of the University of Kentucky describes "The Present Status of Teacher Training in the Use of Visual Aids"; he outlines a course in visual instruction, for which he includes a minimum bibliography.

"FILM TEACHING PLAN"

The Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Association, through its chairman, Dr Alice V. Keliher, has been conducting an experimental program of specially edited 16mm sequences from well-known films in twenty selected high schools and colleges through the country as a means of helping adolescents solve their personal problems and develop a keen insight into human relations and needs.

Feature pictures containing "real life" problems, such as *The Devil Is a Sissy*, *Winterset*, *The Informer*, *Fury*, and others, have been re-edited into two or three short subjects each, stressing the main points of social interest in the films. Exhibition of these sequences to the students are followed by oral or written discussion of the problems involved, under the guidance of the teacher. It is expected that sixty of these short subjects will be in circulation by July, 1938.

Dr Keliher believes that the project will educate a new audience to "films of significant type" by making young people more critical of thematic material. She further states that a long period of observation must precede any attempt to evaluate exactly . . . these films (*Educational Screen*).

"The River"

Being currently released by Paramount Films is the Federal Farm Security Administration film, *The River*. Hailed as one of the most beautiful examples of art in motion pictures ever produced in the United States, it tells the story of the Mississippi River from the "cotton kingdom," pre-Civil War period to the floods of 1935, 1936, and 1937. The film deals with the mining of the forests, the exhaustion of the soil, and the resultant floods. The extracts from Lee's farewell to the Confederate troops and the scenes showing the South in ruins after the Civil War should be of special interest to history teachers. The effects of the worn out land and the attendant share-cropping system are especially well illustrated with dis-

mal scenes of poor harvests and unspeakable living conditions. The last part of the film, which lapses somewhat in artistic quality, deals with the attempts being made by the government to ameliorate the situation. It discusses flood control, the TVA, the CCC and the work of the FSA in planning model communities and in making loans to needy farmers. By an arrangement with Paramount Films, reached after an extended dispute as to the government's place in motion picture production, the film will be shown first in commercial theaters. It is expected that it will be released on 16mm stock for use in schools by the opening of the school year next fall. It is only fair to warn those who send their pupils to see this film that due to the striving of the director (Pare Lorentz) for artistic and symbolic effects, the chronology is greatly confused, the geographical concepts are poorly developed, and elements of conservation are insufficiently interrelated. In the usual sense of the word it is not a teaching film. It is not so much factual as inspirational and stimulative; as this is its real value, it should lead to further study and investigation.

W. H. H.

"The Plow"

Formerly released as *The Plow That Broke The Plains*, this film is now available in 16mm sound-on-film stock for use in schools. It is distributed by the National Resettlement Administration, Washington, D. C. There is no charge except for express, both ways. It deals with the settlement of the plains in the 1880's, and traces the wasteful manner in which the soil was exploited. The resulting moisture depletion and the subsequent dust storms are vividly portrayed. *The Plow*, in its present form, differs from the original picture, *The Plow That Broke The Plains*, in that it does not offer any solution to the problem of the Great Plains, but leaves the student faced with that great social question yet unsolved.

W. H. H.

GEOGRAPHY ARTICLES

The January issue of *Education*, for which Douglas C. Ridgley of Clark University is special editor, includes several articles on geography. Wallace W. Atwood contributes "Geography in International Relations." L. F. Thomas describes St Louis in a case study of urban geography. C. A. Burkhardt describes briefly the process of map making. Harriet Smith develops the possibilities of "The Home County as a Geography Unit." George T. Renner carefully analyzes "Conservation as a Unit of Study in Geography," with specific suggestions for teaching procedures. A classified and annotated list of scholarly books is appended.

CONSERVATION BIBLIOGRAPHY

"Conserving Our Natural Resources" is the title of a carefully selected and important list of recent publications just issued by The American Association for the Advancement of Science with the cooperation of the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore.

Prepared by a distinguished committee consisting of Joseph L. Wheeler (chairman), Enoch Pratt Free Library; Edward W. Berry, Johns Hopkins University; Paul R. Heyl, Bureau of Standards, Washington; and Burton E. Livingston, Johns Hopkins University, it contains a brief digest of each of the publications listed.

For copies of this bibliography address F. R. Moulton, Permanent Secretary of the Association, Smithsonian Institution Building, Washington, stating the number desired.

Teachers in elementary schools who wish to include a study of conservation in their social studies work should not fail to procure the several recent and forthcoming publications of the United States Office of Education. *Conservation in the Education Program*, a 78-page bulletin costing ten cents, was published last year. It discusses general problems and describes numerous

instances of present curricular and instructional practices. Two more bulletins are scheduled to appear early in 1938 under the titles *Elementary Curriculum Content in the Field of Conservation* and *Teaching Conservation in Elementary Schools*. These will be paralleled by four pertinent bibliographies in the "Good References" series of the Office of Education.

AGRICULTURE

The Response of Government to Agriculture: An Account of the Origin and Development of the United States Department of Agriculture . . ., a 108-page history and description of the Department's work, is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, for 15 cents. Plants, breeding, the struggles with disease and insects, weather service, forest care, and the conservation of soil and water, marketing services, and the guarding of purity of food and drugs are among the topics briefly treated.

CORPORATIONS

Understanding Corporations, by Emanuel Stein, represents another effort to present economic information in non-technical terms (Adult Study Outlines, number 4. Service Bureau of Adult Education, New York University, 20 Washington Square North, New York. 56 pages. 50 cents). The discussion of corporations—their nature, organization and control, regulative legislation, investment banking, and the securities market—is not written for children, but should be valuable to teachers and abler students in senior high school.

NATIONAL INCOME

How the National Income Is Divided, by Albert G. Hart (Public Policy Pamphlet number 23. University of Chicago Press. 28 pages. 25 cents), continues an effort to make "available to the public whatever special training and information the University may have at its disposal." The text and tables deal with the following questions:

"How much of the national income of the United States comes into the hands of working people and how much into the hands of property owners? Are the profits of manufacturing and mining companies so large that they could pay much higher wages without either paying less for their materials or charging more for their products? Are the farmers paying a large share of their incomes as interest to mortgageholders? Do the profits of corporations flow to the rich or to people of moderate incomes? Have the rich been growing richer and the poor been growing poorer?"

ECONOMICS FOR CHILDREN

In a long editorial in the February *Journal of the National Education Association*, Joy Elmer Morgan urges the importance of a concerted effort by teachers and parents to train young children to make a better adjustment to their economic environment. He proposes a concrete program of sixteen things to be taught, together with specific suggestions on how to teach them.

ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

Teachers and students of current events and economic problems should have access to many of the publications of the federal Department of Labor. Employment, strike, and payroll statistics may be followed, compared for various industries, and graphed, from the releases of the Secretary, if these are available, or from the *Monthly Labor Review*. Living costs in different parts of the country, and changes from month to month may be followed similarly. Social security, education and training, housing conditions, cooperative associations, industrial accidents and safety, convict labor, hours of labor, developments in other countries, and recent publications in economics are also among the topics regularly treated.

The *Monthly Labor Review* is published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, at 30 cents a copy or \$3.50 a year. Address the Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

"WILLIAMSBURG HOUSES"

The Federal Administration of Public Works, Harold L. Ickes, Administrator, has issued a 30-page illustrated account of the federal housing project at Williamsburg, Brooklyn, New York. The text is readable and informing, the illustrations excellent.

COMMUNITY STUDY

Community study in the schools occupies the position of central interest in recent issues of two educational magazines. *Childhood Education* for February devotes an editorial and five articles to this theme. Lelia Taggart, Director of Rural Education, Santa Barbara County, California, reports how the teachers of her county learned about their own communities through well planned teacher excursions; Winifred Bain tells of a scheme for teacher training through community study in the North Carolina mountains. The other articles deal with community study by the pupils themselves, including a very useful listing of committee recommendations of "community agencies useful in guiding children's development," and "some typical school situations which suggest using the services of community agencies." In the *California Journal of Secondary Education* for January are contained an editorial entitled "Youth and Community," a symposium on "School and Community," and an article describing the role of community surveys by college students in the teacher-training program of Central State Teachers College, Mt Pleasant, Michigan. A third magazine, the *Journal of Educational Sociology* for January, contains a series of articles on the "Yonkers Plan of Community Coordination," one of which deals with the so-called "Junior Councils" of elementary school pupils. The specific activities carried on in sixteen schools are reported separately in detail. They reveal how children can learn first to develop a community consciousness within their own schools, and then how this training can be extended to include

participation in community life outside the school.

W. F. M.

RADIO NEWS FOR SCHOOLS

Radio broadcasts for school use have been inaugurated this year by the Minneapolis public schools. Among the regular programs is one intended especially for social studies classes, entitled "News X-ray." This consists of a weekly survey of current events by an experienced commentator based upon suggestions and material regularly supplied by students and teachers.

That the radio constitutes a significant source of information on current affairs for school pupils, even when special school broadcasts are not provided, is attested by the evidence presented in an article in the January *School Review* by C. C. Lammers. The author tested high school pupils on their knowledge of current events in three consecutive years and also asked them to indicate what were their most valuable sources of current information. For the 132 pupils involved in the 1937 study, 61 per cent gave first rating to the radio, 31 per cent to newspapers, and 8 per cent to news weeklies. Similar results were also found in 1935 and 1936.

W. F. M.

CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

In "Let's Make Citizenship Training Practical," in the December issue of *Educational Method*, Albert G. Reilley of Framingham, Massachusetts, drawing on his unpublished master's thesis at the Boston University School of Education, urges that student interest be developed. He suggests that existing citizenship deficiencies be used in establishing objectives, and identifies the large percentage of non-voters as such a deficiency. The results of the "New England Test" in 1931, reported by George K. Makechnie, and of a supplementary test administered by Mr Reilley, demonstrated the lack of information and interest of high

school pupils; the same supplementary test, administered in a junior high school where a definite effort had been made to develop political interest, revealed impressively greater command of political information.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS IN FLINT

Because Flint, Michigan, confronts its citizens with many social problems of a distinctive character, the problems course given to high school seniors in that city has been made to order for them. The philosophy and content of the course are described in the January issue of the *Harvard Educational Review* in an article by Emily Kickhafer, entitled "Studying Social Problems in a Center of Industrial Unrest." The course, initiated three years ago by a committee of Flint teachers, deals with such factors as the rapid population growth of the city and its consequences, the nature of large-scale industry, labor unions and strikes, the influence of public opinion, the role of government, and the use of leisure time. In connection with such pupil activities as the dramatization of strikes and holding of political conventions, considerable attention was aroused in the newspapers—both favorable and unfavorable. For the most part, however, the local publicity given the course is reported to have secured a large measure of public approval and community cooperation. A parallel account, by Mrs Ruth O. Henry, appeared in the May, 1937, issue of *Social Education*.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS CONTEST

There is still time for teachers to enroll their schools in the Twelfth Annual High School Contest conducted by the League of Nations Association. More than 900 high schools, the Association reports, have already indicated their intention to take part in this nation-wide examination set for April 8th. A request indicating desire to enroll addressed to the Educational Secretary of the Association, Mrs Harrison Thomas, at 8 West 40th Street, New York,

will bring full information and a complimentary set of the study material on which the examination is to be based.

The study material this year includes not only the handbook, "Essential Facts," which tells the story of the League, World Court, and International Labor Organization and the Covenant of the League of Nations but also the Headline book, "Peaceful Change—The Alternative to War," which discusses the economic causes of war and possible solutions. The new emphasis this year on the economic basis of peace is made to bring the project into line with the World Economic Campaign now being conducted by the National Peace Conference.

The student submitting the best paper will as usual be awarded a trip to Europe, and various other prizes in the form of scholarships and cash awards are also offered.

ENGLISH AND SOCIAL STUDIES

Teachers of English are concerned with matters closely related to problems of teaching the social studies more than are teachers in any other field. Social studies teachers will derive both interest and profit from noting the approach to such problems taken by their colleagues in the English department. Several approaches are easily available in recent magazines.

Correlation. A persistent tie-up between English and social studies is to be seen in the efforts of many schools to correlate or integrate these two subjects. Three English teachers in the January issues of three different magazines all pay their respects to the values to be derived from such correlation and integration (from the standpoint of English it means increased functionality of pupils' reading and writing); but they also sound a common note of warning that such combined courses tend to subordinate English to a position as merely a "tool" and to endanger the teaching of literature as an art. This point of view constitutes the principal message of

Edna Cotner's article in the *Elementary English Review*; it is implicit in Mark Neville's report in the *English Journal* of experience in "unfusing" an integrated program in a junior high school; and it is treated incidentally in Dora V. Smith's essay in the *Bulletin of the American Library Association*.

Historical Drama. To have pupils write and produce their own original plays dealing with historical incidents will contribute to learning in both English and history and will capitalize on interest, writes A. Estelle Belt in the *Journal of the National Education Association* for February. Her article contains a report of how such work was carried on in a sixth-grade class and reproduces two plays written by pupils.

Local History. The December *English Journal* carries a stimulating article, rich in concrete ideas for pupil activities and projects, in which a librarian urges teachers of English to utilize the historical backgrounds of their local communities for pupils' themes, imaginative stories, training in interviewing, and collecting materials for a local-history library. History teachers will find many helpful suggestions in this article.

Historical Fiction. "The New Vogue of Historical Fiction" constitutes the leading article in the *English Journal* for December. Its author is Harlan Hatcher, professor of English at Ohio State University. Popular interest in historical novels, both in England and America, is shown to exhibit cyclical increases and declines over the past century or more. We are now on the crest of a revival that began nearly a decade ago following a quarter century of emphasis upon the contemporary scene. The current vogue differs from preceding ones principally in respect

to its increased realism. "Novelists have imposed upon themselves some responsibility for greater fidelity to psychological truth and more scientific documentation of material to guarantee historical accuracy." On the other hand, novelists still look for their settings to the same "three eras of authentic legendary appeal"—Colonial and Revolutionary times, the Old South and Civil War, and the West. Dr. Hatcher believes that the Civil War period has recently been over exploited and predicts a shift of interest to the Old West. History teachers wishing further analysis of current trends in historical fiction from the viewpoint of the library critic will be well repaid by reading "History Fights the Civil War" by Bernard DeVoto in the *Saturday Review of Literature* for December 18, 1937.

W. F. M.

AVERY W. SKINNER

Avery W. Skinner, until his retirement in 1936 director of the division of examinations and inspections in the New York State Department of Education, died suddenly on December 13. He was a graduate of Syracuse University in the class of 1892; some years later he did graduate study at Columbia University. He had served as school principal, superintendent, and inspector, and had taught methods of history teaching at Syracuse University. He was the author of several history and civics textbooks.

Readers are invited to send in items for "Notes and News." Items for May should be sent in by April 1.

Contributors to this issue include Anna Bell, Nelle Bowman, Irving A. Dahl, Elmer Ellis, William H. Hartley, R. O. Hughes, D. C. Knowlton, Michael Levine, C. C. Loew, and W. F. Murra.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Old South: Struggles for Democracy.
By William E. Dodd. New York: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. xiv, 312. \$3.75.

By birth and heritage Dr Dodd is a Southerner and a Democrat. But unlike many other Southerners of similar heritage his attachment to democracy is something more than adherence to a party label. In recognition of his democratic principles, as well as of his high standing among American historians, President Roosevelt appointed him ambassador to Germany in 1933. From one point of view the appointment was an unfortunate one. That is to say, if a President should send as our representative to a foreign power a man who is in rapport with the government of that power, then Dr Dodd certainly was not the person to select for the German mission just at the moment when Hitler was consolidating his dictatorial authority. If, on the other hand, it is fitting that we be represented at any capital, regardless of the prevailing political ideology existing there, by a man who in his philosophy and manner of life embodies the best in the American democratic tradition, then William E. Dodd's was an ideal appointment. All too frequently the former of the two foregoing points of view has prevailed, and, even when it did not, the man selected often tended to depart from the true democratic way of life and thought and, in a manner of speaking, take on the protective coloration of his environment. Perhaps the most striking example of this sort of thing was the case of the late Walter Hines Page,

United States Ambassador to the Court of Saint James's during the World War. But Dr Dodd during the four and more years of his residence in Berlin never once swerved from his devotion to democratic principles and even his bitterest enemy, if he had one, could not have accused him of toadying to the Nazis.

The book before us is written by a fearless devotee of democracy, and in some sort it is propaganda, but in the good sense of the word. That is, propaganda is bad when it is based upon lies, half-truths, or distortions of the truth and is broadcast to serve selfish or invidious purposes. Of this kind we have seen and heard so much that we tend to assume that all propaganda is evil. Such, however, is not the case. Propaganda is good, when, as here, it is buttressed by facts, honestly obtained and fairly interpreted.

The book tells of the settlement and early history of Virginia, Maryland, and the two Carolinas. The story ends about the year 1690, but in his preface Dr Dodd promises that this is the first of four volumes which will cover the entire history of the Old South to its final overthrow. The next book will "seek to describe and explain the great changes . . . between 1690 and 1754 . . . the emergence of Negro slavery and its effects upon the system which Sir Edwyn Sandys . . . had hoped to see established in far-off North America (p. vii)." In the present volume Dr Dodd approves Sandys' conviction that popular self-government could exist only under conditions where the ownership of real tangible

property is widespread. In the main such conditions did exist in the old South during the seventeenth century, and there the seeds of democracy were first sown in America. Doubtless the next volume will show that with the growth of the plantation system and slavery in the eighteenth century democracy did not flourish so well. But it must not be forgotten that the ideal was Southern just as much, if not more, than it was Eastern or Northern—a fact that many of the older historians in the North, writing when Civil War emotions were still running high, tended to overlook or ignore.

For more than a quarter of a century in his classes and seminars in Southern history at the University of Chicago Dr Dodd has been presenting this point of view. In this and the three succeeding volumes the results of his mature scholarship will be presented to a wider audience which will doubtless include many teachers of history and the social studies in college and high school. In fact no one so engaged should fail to read this volume and the others as they appear. They will find the style lively, the facts clearly and logically arranged, and they should emerge from the intellectual exercise with a juster view of their country's history and withal should find themselves better fitted to defend the cause of democracy from the forces within and without that threaten it.

B. B. KENDRICK

The Woman's College of the
University of North Carolina

Everyday Things in American Life, 1607-1776.

By William Chauncy Langdon. New York: Scribner, 1937. Pp. xx, 353. \$3.00.

With illuminating detail and examples, the author, who has been a writer of historical pageants and historian of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, tells how Americans lived and made their living in the first hundred and seventy years of settlement. He avoids such still often repeated errors as that the log cabin

was borrowed from the Indians and was the earliest shelter of white men in America, that bricks for important houses were imported from Europe, and that the Englishman, Henry Hudson, was named or ever called Hendrick Hudson. Moreover his explanation that the loghouse construction was probably introduced by Swedes and Finns on the Delaware River in 1638, adopted by the English for forts and prisons, and later used for houses all up and down the ever widening frontier is set forth in such a way that the reader, young and old, will see with kindling imagination the importance and romance of that long development. At the same time that the author appeals thus to the imagination he also appeals to the reader's everyday knowledge of present living by tracing, for instance, the evolution of such pieces of furniture as the highbacked settle and the wing chair to keep off drafts or as the "chest of drawers" from the chest or by his descriptions of pioneer food and pioneer cooking. "Anyone who in the summer cooks at an outdoor fireplace knows how the early American colonists prepared their food. They cooked at an open fire indoors" (p. 19). As for the same reader's love of food he has a good deal to say about duck and venison and wild turkey, baked beans, brown bread, and pies baked in a brick oven! Although it is of course no longer true of all children, still most children today will recognize as of their own experience his explanation that the early "walls of wooden houses and backyard fences—and so garden fences in general—undoubtedly had a common origin" (p. 10).

As the picture widens out into the more spacious times of the eighteenth century, whose houses and furniture so largely condition present taste in architecture and interior decoration, he arouses the reader's appreciation of beauty and of the achievement of beauty and utility, whether it is in wood, stone, silver, iron, or whatever material—whether it is the simple hand-wrought iron nail or the tracery of wrought

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iron gates, the development of such glass as Stiegel made or the magnificent silver of Oncklebaugh or of Paul Revere, or the balanced beauty of such houses as Westover on the James River or the John Vassall house in Cambridge, Massachusetts, where Washington had his headquarters during the Revolution and where Longfellow lived and died. Moreover he does not neglect the magic tales of the men who go down to the sea in ships, those who fish for cod and for whale and who carry men and freight to and fro on the face of the waters, as well as those who man their country's ships of war, or are privateers, or live and die as pirates. He tells with a dextrous bid for awakening interest in historical research something of the life and career of Captain Kidd, but his statement is hardly true that that life is "no less a mystery than ever."

This is social history that will appeal to a wide variety of abilities and interests. With a simple, readable style, luxurious print and paper, and some two hundred illustrations well chosen and well executed over a wide range of time, space, and kind of interest, it offers—after the teachers have finished reading it—entertainment and information to readers of junior and senior high school age. Parts of it will tempt those of elementary school age whose life in a small town makes much of the material more certainly intelligible or those whose training in manual dexterity has already aroused interest in the problems and solutions here described. There is an index and a suggestive bibliography for further reading.

K. E. C.

Sea Dogs of the Sixties. By Jim Dan Hill. Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1935. Pp. xiv, 265. \$3.00.

Our Navy. By Charles J. Finger. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1936. Pp. xii, 188. \$2.00.

Heroes of the Air. By Chelsea Fraser. New York: Crowell, 1938. Pp. xxxiii, 808. \$2.50.

Each of these books is suitable for many of the pupils in both junior and senior high school, and *Our Navy* would interest some of those in the upper elementary school. The first contains excellent accounts of the lives of eight naval leaders, Confederate and Union, in the great period of transition from sail to steam as well as during the Civil War—Farragut, Bulloch, Wilkes, Wilkinson, the second John Rodgers, Read, Winslow, and Waddell. The second book is a history of our navy throughout its existence, well organized and well told. Each of the two partakes of the age-old appeal of the sea and of stories of men who sail the sea. Together they give a survey of what is a very gallant tale, and one that reflects rather more credit on our national ideals than many a less bloody enterprise. *Heroes of the Air* shows highlights of achievement from the early days of aircraft and the first victorious flight across the Atlantic down to this year 1938—all of it with the interest in everyday detail that absorbs the attention of youth and adult alike. In none of the books is found the kind of emphasis on personal failure and personal success that is very useful in teaching children that the lives represented by names in history books and in newspaper headlines are real lives lived and suffered and enjoyed by real persons. Certainly individual teachers will have their individual convictions about whether they prefer to teach the fame of war or the glory of peace, but in either case these books reflect only the world of action, in which there is achievement, glory, and death, but little of that contemplation which even in the midst of events makes the world of ideas.

K. E. C.

Our Racial and National Minorities, Ed and partly written by Francis J. Brown and Joseph S. Roucek. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1937. Pp. xx, 877. \$5.00.

This volume will take an important place on social science collateral reading lists, particularly in such courses as immigration, population problems, race problems, and

modern social problems. Emory S. Bogardus, James Weldon Johnson, E. George Payne, and Clark Wissler are among the considerable number of those whose united labors resulted in the production of this book. The work is divided into four parts. Part I presents the problems of minorities within the United States and summarizes the data prerequisite to an understanding of these problems. Part II is a study of minority groups, each chapter being a monograph dealing with a specific group. Part III consists of a discussion of the problems presented in the preceding section. Part IV deals largely with "cultural pluralism." Minority contributions, actual and potential, are stressed. The contributors quite generally indicate that our country is not alone in having difficulties arising from the presence of minority groups. Poland, whose Polish population not long since constituted minorities in Russia, Germany, and Austria-Hungary, now has 10 per cent of its inhabitants made up of Ukrainians, White Russians, Germans, Lithuanians, Jews, and Czecho-Slovaks. Czecho-Slovakia has minority groups totaling about one-third of its entire population. Germans account for a little more than one-fifth of all the population of this country. Other minority groups are Magyars, Ruthenes, Jews, and Poles. Yugoslavia, whose "Yugoslavs" consist of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, possesses minority groups of Germans, Magyars, Albanians, Rumanians, Czecho-Slovaks, Turks, and Italians. Further examples are given.

It is shown that minority problems in the United States, serious as they may appear, after all are scarcely as difficult of solution as the minority problems of our European neighbors. However, "an adequate social policy, which will comprehend the needs and aspirations of our social [racial?] minorities, hinges upon a better understanding and appreciation of those minorities."

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon Normal School
Monmouth

A Merit System for Minnesota. St Paul: State Department of Education. 1937. Pp. 69, 10c.

Compiled by Dr A. Stephen Stephan under the supervision of Mr A. R. Rathert, administrative assistant in the state department of education, this is the first volume of an Educational Materials Project in a Social Science Series, sponsored jointly by the state department of education and the state university.

The purpose of the bulletin is to answer a variety of questions. What is the civil service? What is the merit system? How does it operate? What is its place in modern government? Should the merit system be fully adopted in Minnesota? Where can one get adequate information about it? In such brief space, these questions can not be answered fully; but the reader will be surprised at the amount of information furnished in an orderly and stimulating way with a good many tables and charts. The brief bibliography is adequate for introductory purposes and is well selected with a view to luring the reader to ask for more.

Persons who would like to promote the teaching of the merit system in their own communities would do well to read this pamphlet for the sake of its form as well as for the information provided. Educational material is often so wordy and involved that the reader is tired out before his interest is awakened.

It is a source of constant wonder to intelligent and progressive people that the merit system is so little used in this country. They are apt to charge vague political forces with being responsible for our backwardness. The fact is that much of the fault lies squarely on the doorstep of our educational system. Let anyone who doubts this take up almost any text or secondary source in American history or government, turn to the index for this subject, and then read what is offered. Jackson gave us the spoils system, and the Pendleton Act was passed after Garfield was killed. Rarely is there any explanation of the system itself; and it is

generally treated, when treated at all, as a negative rather than a positive element of public welfare and social accomplishment. Our educational system can not avoid blame for the fact that only about a third of our states have merit system laws, about a third of those having it being recent converts. We say that teaching citizenship is one of the aims of education; but we tend to mistake discussion of transient policy for treatment of sound organization.

EDGAR DAWSON

Hunter College

Vocations Through Problems. By James B. Edmonson and Arthur Dondineau. New York: Macmillan, 1936. Pp. ix, 223. 96c.

I Find My Vocation. By Harry Dexter Kitson. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1937. Pp. xvi, 227. \$1.40.

Students and Occupations. By E. G. Williamson. New York: Holt, 1937. Pp. xxiv, 437. \$2.50.

These three books, each of which illustrates different approaches to the selection of a vocation, are reviewed from the point of view of the vocational counselor looking for a book to assist him in guiding students to select practical and satisfying vocational objectives.

The first book uses the traditional approach by dispensing information about a variety of vocations. It differs slightly from the customary procedure by interspersing thought problems throughout. As a means of giving a preliminary overview of different occupations, it is as good as the average book of its kind, but, as a book to be used by a counselor for the purpose of preparing students to make vocational choices, it leaves much to be desired. It does not give the student practical advice as to how to study his own aptitudes and how to apply the knowledge thus gained to the selection of a vocation.

The approach used by Dr Kitson is unique. Instead of presenting an overview

of different occupations, it outlines methods for the study of occupations and attempts to stimulate thought on the part of the student leading toward his own selection of a vocation. Of especial merit is a section of eighteen pages containing a classified list of biographies to which students are encouraged to refer. This book is of much more value than those of the traditional approach in assisting the student to select a vocation. Many counselors will question the validity of the author's insistence upon the student doing all the analysis of his own aptitudes and of doing all his own thinking and will think that the problem of a vocational choice should be more of a cooperative activity between the student and a counselor. In schools where no real counseling service is available, this book will be especially valuable.

Dr Williamson has written his book from the viewpoint of a counselor who uses the clinical method of guidance. This book, which is written for college students and high school seniors in the college preparatory course, is admirable for that purpose. Counselors will find this book to contain practical common sense advice that will serve to make students select vocations in keeping with their aptitudes instead of encouraging all to proceed with the upward and onward philosophy of occupational endeavor, which leads to so many maladjustments and disillusionments. The realistic statement of the functions of guidance workers found in the preface is an education in itself and goes a long way toward putting guidance on a workable basis. The book describes an approach to vocational guidance that will enable counselors to put their guidance practices on a practical basis and begin to render real and effective aid to students. It encourages students to study their abilities and aptitudes, and it describes means for them to use in such a study. It describes broad types of occupational fields instead of treating occupations on a job label basis. The material found in the book and the guidance methods described can

be applied to counseling in high school as well as in college. This book marks the beginning of a new era in guidance and is indispensable to counselors.

G. F. VARNER

Central High School
St Paul, Minnesota

Education in Pacific Countries. By Felix M. Keesing. Shanghai: Kelly and Walsh, 1937. Distributed by University of Hawaii Bookstore. Pp. viii, 226. \$1.50.

Four distinct impressions are to be noted in a survey of this interpretation of a Seminar Conference conducted by the University of Hawaii and Yale University, with the assistance from the Carnegie Corporation, in Honolulu, Hawaii, from July 3 to August 7, 1936.

The first is of the excellence of the editorial job. That a conference of more than sixty specialists, covering a period of five weeks, should be summarized by one editor into an enlightening, interesting, and unified story is an achievement. The personality as well as the personal views of important contributors to the conference are not lost. The specific and local problems are not passed over, though their consideration may be in brief terms. In the consideration of the conference, the existence of the leading problems of the area are never lost. All in all the story is interesting and the account is an excellent one.

The second impression is of the complexity of the various educational problems and their importance. In the discussion by these specialists many significant points of view were considered and are here recorded. Naturally the same professional and teaching problems exist here that exist elsewhere. There are also numerous other problems due to the conflict between modern Western educational procedure and racial ideals of an Oriental indigenous character. The conflict or rivalry of a religiously controlled education with a purely secular governmentally controlled education exists here in more acute form than in Western lands.

The problem of the preservation of valuable elements in an indigenous culture is here a pervasive one, as is also the problem of what constitutes worth itself. There are the problems of dual language, an auxiliary language, native dialect without literary foundation, and all the related school problems. Moreover these are also the difficulties due to the variety of cultural status and cultural problems with which the educator or the statesman must deal. Some of the countries of the Pacific have a rich culture of long standing. Some even are possibly the sources of the essential elements, if not the whole structure, of Western culture. Some have an indigenous culture of the most primitive character.

A third impression to be noted is the rapidity with which a major characteristic may change, and the ease with which a profoundly important, impending major change may be overlooked entirely. The conference quite properly decided that the essential problem was that of the control of education; but the major aspect discussed was whether that control was to be exercised by the government or by the church—really a consideration of the merits of private as against public control. However it seems to many of us who have had administrative responsibility in the East that really the only problem of education is clearly defined as the problem of the totalitarian state. In some parts of the Near East this is clearly stated in the term *etatism*—state socialism. The problem of church against state fades into insignificance, and the problem of private education exists no more, for both of these problems are easily and fully answered in the one belief that all such functions belong to the state. If, as seems obvious to this reviewer, such a conception of government is approximated in Japan and is the ideal in the Philippines and possibly in China and other parts of the Far East, then all problems of education disappear there, except two very nearly related ones, which were not even mentioned in the Honolulu conference. What should be

the attitude of those who are still interested in discussing any of the other problems of education? And how can the etatist view be combated?

A fourth impression of this volume concerns the excellence of the discussion method. For each topic discussed one gets a summary of a variety of views rather than a logical analysis of a problem by a well trained expert. For the excellence of the technique we are perhaps indebted to the organizations that were the chief sponsors of the conference, that is the Institute of Pacific Relations and the University of Hawaii.

PAUL MONROE

Teachers College
Columbia University

The Ancient World. By Wallace Everett Caldwell. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1937. Pp. xviii, 590. \$5.00.

The Ancient World is interesting not only in itself but also as the first of three volumes which will, the publishers state, "constitute a complete survey of western civilization." That disposes quite definitely of the United States, for once civilization gets to Europe the editors keep it there, down to the present. The first volume, which in its five hundred pages travels from the stone ages to traditional 476, is certainly not designed for use during a few weeks in some survey course in "civilization." We hope it reflects the considered opinion that undergraduate students, for whom the author is writing, require a liberal time allowance to assimilate that detailed information essential to an understanding of world movements.

The author recognizes that, since history happened somewhere at a given time, it is futile to teach any event, to say nothing of underlying causation, without first establishing the time and picturing the locale. He has therefore inserted dates throughout the text and supplemented them with an appendix composed of three chronological tables, especially useful because they present

as contemporaneous events that must of necessity be studied in sequence. Moreover as each new group makes its entrance in the history the territory in which it appeared is described. These descriptions combined with eighteen maps do much toward furnishing the geographic setting for the action—much but not all that is needed. The author forgets that many students who will use the book have come up through schools from which "geography" as such has disappeared and with it an exact knowledge of the face of the globe. The maps in this text are chiefly black and white line drawings intelligible to one familiar with the scene but not for others. Occasional color maps might correct this.

One should comment on the excellent bibliography and the illustrations, which actually do complement the text in a way reminiscent of Rostovtzeff, though one misses his explanatory notes. Students will probably find the new book an easier text than Professor Rostovtzeff's two volume work because of the organization of the material. In addition Rostovtzeff presupposes previous and related knowledge; Caldwell does not and so quotes at length to illustrate his points. There are, of course, interpretations that might be questioned on the basis of what other scholars think: the influence of the priestly class in old Babylon, the effect of money economy on Greek commerce, the Spartan devices to restrictions on the use of gold and silver, the abuses of tax farming in Rome, for examples. Such, however, are minor details and in some measure unavoidable when one condenses great epochs into a single volume. That political history is not discarded in the attempt to present other aspects of civilizations is a distinct asset. This reviewer was amused nevertheless to read in this ancient history that interest in social and economic factors, in literature, art, religion has recently broadened the scope of history to embrace these fields, and she recollected that the historian as long ago as Herodotus thought it all grist

for his mill. However, whatever faults one may find—and numbering pages on the inconvenient inner edges is one—either in organization or content it is none the less true that the student is provided with an adequate basis for more intensive study of specific problems or of later periods.

ALICE WILCOX HOLLAND

Roselle Park
New Jersey

A History of Latin America. By David R. Moore. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1938. Pp. xii, 826. \$5.00.

During the past twenty years only eight college textbooks have been written dealing with Latin America, this volume being the eighth; but interest in the subject has been increasing steadily, both on the part of the layman and on the part of the student. During the depression the number of college and university courses dealing with Latin America about doubled, as did the number of students taking such courses. And just at present a survey being made by the Pan American Union seems to indicate a decided movement toward teaching Latin American history in the high schools. Hence any new textbook treating the history and civilization of our southern neighbors should be a welcome aid to teachers in this field.

The author of this volume is a professor of history at Oberlin College. He has made, as he says in his preface, an attempt "to outline conditions in Latin America as they are now, with as much emphasis upon the present as the limits of a book of this nature will permit. Keeping in mind also whatever continuity there may be in history, the author has tried to sketch the background, to describe the peoples, institutions, the culture and ideas, and to trace the political and other events of the past to show how the present has evolved. History must deal as far as practicable with all aspects of a people's life. Hence the political, constitutional, and administrative arrangements, the economic and social

activities, and, to the extent possible, the educational and intellectual features, the cultural aims and accomplishments, and the ideals and aspirations of the leaders, at least, have been touched upon. Foreign relations have not been neglected, especially the contacts of the nations south of the Rio Grande and the Caribbean with their great neighbor to the north of that line." To accomplish these pedagogical aims he has divided his book into three parts: The Colonial Period (ten chapters), Nineteenth Century Developments (five chapters), and Latin America Today (six chapters). He has included eleven poorly selected maps, three of which are colored, and he has added thirty-one pages of classified bibliography, which though abundant is poorly organized and contains a number of important omissions. The work may not seem well balanced to many college teachers, but the treatment is generally adequate and the style pleasing. Students will find the work either a good reference or a good text depending upon their needs.

A. CURTIS WILGUS

The George Washington University

Story of America. By Ralph Volney Harlow. New York: Holt, 1937. Pp. xiv, 812, xliii. \$2.20.

One great task of the social studies teacher is to utilize the research work of scholars to increase the general understanding of the future American citizen. Specifically, the contribution of history should add depth to that understanding and should help in reaching decisions on contemporary problems. This book makes the work of many scholarly investigators available in a form that can be utilized in everyday thought. It presents the material in eight chronologically arranged units, but the teacher who prefers a complete topical organization without reference to chronology will find the book well adapted to those teaching methods. The colonial groundwork is followed by the secession from the British Empire and the work of establish-

ing a new government on democratic foundations, which are broadened by the party of Jefferson. In this section of the book the emphasis is political with social and economic materials utilized to support the central theme of governmental invention and growth. Unit three describes the westward movement with the economic phase of expansion the dominant theme. The political and cultural influences of the frontier are interpreted. The explanation of regional economic differences with their accompanying social and political variations leads naturally to the sectional tragedy in unit four.

The second half of the book deals with the United States since the Civil War. In this section a wealth of information is supplied to serve as background for contemporary problems. The rise of corporate monopoly is described, and the efforts to solve the problems of the new industrialism by democratic methods are summarized. In unit seven American foreign relations are developed from their early stages to the present day. After reading this section the reader is left with the impression that in our foreign relations we have been inept because of our provincialism. The account, however, builds a feeling of optimism; Americans today, better informed about world affairs than ever before, are forming, at last, a realistic foreign policy.

In describing the events of the twentieth century the author does more than use the libraries. He is a skillful commentator who draws upon his experience in living through the period. The high school student who is skeptical about the value of studying history is presented here with an excellent example of the value of historical study, in the presentation of the problems of our era by a man who is able to observe and interpret present events in broad outline and proper perspective.

Two other parts of the book should be mentioned. In the first pages there is an excellent description of the techniques of

historiography, and of the limitations of historical writing in condensed form. The author encourages the mature high school student to approach his study of history critically. In the final pages of the book the author again makes a critical analysis of the citizens' sources of information: books, newspapers, and periodicals. One wishes that he had written a much longer section at this point which would include the cinema and radio.

HOWARD CUMMINGS

Clayton High School
Clayton, Missouri

Realities of American Government. By Neal Doyle Houghton. New York: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. xx, 789. \$1.80.

In this textbook, Neal Doyle Houghton, author and professor of political science at the University of Arizona, attempts to describe our governmental institutions as they actually function, rather than as they theoretically should function. The text is organized into four parts: "Development of our System of Government," "Our National Government and Its Work," "Our State Governments and Their Work," and "Our Local Governments and Their Work." The main interest of the book lies not in its organization, which follows the traditional pattern of texts on government, but in the presentation of the extra legal aspects of our government so often neglected in other texts. A recital of several chapter headings will illustrate the nature of the author's approach: chapter v, "Non-partisan Pressure Groups and Organizations," chapter vi, "Forces and Pressure Which Influence the Passing of National Laws," chapter xxii, "Forces and Pressure Which Influence the Passing of State Laws," chapter xxv, "The Movement to Reorganize and Improve Our State Executive and Administrative Machinery," chapter xxvii, "The Movement to Strengthen and Improve Our System of Administering Justice," chapter xxxiii, "Invisible Forces in Our Local Governments," chapter xxxvi,

"Opportunities and Responsibilities of American Citizenship." In addition to these topics, chapter viii discusses logrolling and restraints in debate in Congress, and chapter xi, the connection between party politics and appointments. The result of the author's approach is to give us a definitely realistic textbook. The effect is enhanced by the large number of current illustrations, and the discussion of current national and state problems with frequent references to recent legislation.

The book has the essential characteristics of a good textbook. It is definite and concrete and hence will be an effective aid to the teacher and student. The pictures, charts, and other illustrative material are educative rather than merely decorative. The suggestions for collateral reading represent a variety of opinions on each of the topics, and furnish collateral for the average, as well as for the bright, student. The table of contents is adequate and the index complete. The vocabulary and simple sentence structure are well adapted to secondary school pupils. The author has adopted the practice of having important vocabulary terms printed in italics. This is an excellent idea which might well have been used to include a still larger number of vocabulary terms. An interesting innovation is the annual revision of the textbook. This reviewer recommends that a supplement be furnished, if necessary, to schools which purchased earlier editions.

In some instances, the author's references are subject to question. On pages fifty-four and fifty-five the author attributes the greater prevalence of socialism in European countries to the miserable conditions of the laborers. This will not explain why socialism is stronger in France, England, and the Scandinavian countries than among industrial workers in the Balkans. In the discussion of how city bosses control enough votes to keep control of local governments the author omits to mention the practices of obtaining political allegiance in return for such favors as renewal of "licenses,"

newsstand concessions, squashing indictments, "fixing" a ticket for speeding. These are serious omissions in a realistic textbook.

HAROLD FIELDS

Benjamin Franklin High School
New York City

Economics, Basic Principles, and Problems.

By Rudolf K. Michels. Chicago: Gregg, 1937. Pp. viii, 614. \$1.60.

This is a useful high school text in economics, which follows a traditional organization into five parts, consumption, production, exchange, distribution, and public finance. The treatment is factual but understandable. There is an abundance of pictures and charts, as well as a few documents, such as notes, bonds, and stock certificates. At the end of each chapter there are (a) an outline of the chapter (b) a list of review questions and of topics for discussion and (c) a classified bibliography with books listed under the three headings of secondary school texts, college texts, and special readings. In an appendix there is a three-page bibliography. The sixteen-page index is adequate and useful. The book includes a very brief summary of the most recent federal legislation dealing with such matters as security, banks, money, and in dealing with these and with New Deal legislation, labor injunctions, taxation, and TVA policies the author has kept his own opinion—or prejudice—definitely out of sight. I observed no reason why he might be damned by the radical or jailed by the conservatives.

Pedagogically, the book is on the whole satisfactory. A student might however be confused over the concept of marginal productivity (pp. 78-81). The law of supply and the law of demand are inadequately treated. Interest in relation to saving and the process of capital accumulation is oversimplified. The relation of overhead costs to price, competition, and the business cycle is not treated, although these three topics are dealt with.

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Community Backgrounds of Education. By Lloyd Allen Cook. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938. Pp. xi, 397. \$3.00.

There are many admirable features in this text in educational sociology. It has an integrating purpose, that of understanding the community. It illustrates the range and scope of community behavior, types and problems. The author has quoted aptly and extensively. The bibliographies are good and up to date. It, therefore, can be used as a text either by the college with very limited library facilities, or by a university college of education with ampler resources. The wide use of this book, and its reading by teachers in service, will help to remove some of the admitted deficiencies in teacher training and in citizenship. The book may also be judged by another standard, that which is implied by the author when he calls attention to the unsatisfactory teaching and understanding of educational sociology. That unsatisfactoriness may be attributed to several factors, but certainly not to lack of materials nor unwillingness of colleges to give it a place. A major difficulty has been the position assigned in the course. At a neighboring state university educational sociology is given on the junior college level with no prerequisites in either education or sociology. At another college it is given in the place of sociology. Those who wish to improve and spread the teaching of educational sociology can, in the reviewer's opinion, more nearly achieve their task by putting it ahead in the schedule and making foundational, educational and sociological sciences prerequisite. Professor Cook has obviously written his text with the needs of the beginner in mind and has included much of what can be considered vital social experience, human relations material. Yet his first care is for information, for realistic social education. His aim is that social understanding born of knowledge and of scholarship devoted to concrete human and local situations; and he offers, by way of summary, various levels at which school and community relations may be studied.

The fifth and highest level, he believes, is the social process level. "This approach avoids the 'lo here, lo there' type of social problems course and it provides the perspective necessary for effective community service" (p. 381).

However it may be permissible to ask one or two questions. Is guidance simply "a matter of pupil growth under planning, a thoughtful effort to assimilate a growing person to a changing community"? (p. 5) Is not social guidance, rather, a matter of helping to form intelligent purposes? The author does not omit this aspect, but it deserves more attention in the book, because a great deal of attention is given to progressive education and but little to social progress. Again, is it a matter of taste that the insights which have been displayed by Lewis Mumford in various discussions of the community should have been omitted or possibly ignored? It has been his contention that blight in the city or elsewhere is not ecological but sociological, that is, every community becomes blighted unless it keeps alive and in process of constant renewal, effective organs of human association. The greater the number of people crowded together without appropriate organs of association the more they are subject to dictatorial compulsion. Moreover, can teachers develop due discrimination in the use of the radio without viewing it as a phase of change in international communication and of an actual world age in history? Economics and history have a contribution to make to a fully developed educational sociology, which seeks to give social and educational guidance.

GUY V. PRICE

Teachers College
Kansas City, Missouri

Vocabulary Booklet in the Social Studies for Junior and Senior High Schools. By John P. Dix. Carthage, Mo.: Carthage Press, 1937. Pp. 103. Available from the author at Northeast Junior High School, Kansas City, Missouri, 75c.

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18 LAWRENCE HALL, KIRKLAND STREET, CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS

A proper understanding of the terms peculiar to the social studies is necessary for any student who hopes to gain an adequate understanding of his social environment. The author has attempted to further this understanding by the preparation of this booklet, which centers about five hundred social studies terms for which he has provided definitions and examples. The terms are alphabetically arranged and provided with phonetic pronunciation; the more important ones are starred for further study. Some words which the author regards as particularly elusive and difficult are discussed in a separate section. This discussion instead of becoming a helpful approach to the study of the words becomes, however, a treatment of such social problems as taxation, democracy, and immigration. In addition to the word list, which occupies about one-half of the total pages, the author has suggested a large number of activities to aid students in enlarging their vocabularies and in distinguishing various shades of meaning. These aids include assignments, tests, cross-reference lists, Latin derivatives, and oral activities.

The words of which the master list is composed are well chosen, but the user of the booklet will probably wish to ask the author on what basis he made his selection. A valuable suggestion is the advice to the student that he put the definitions into his own choice of words, and this is well emphasized throughout the book. The suggestion that the class study five new words each day is in danger of degenerating into rote memory of definitions rather than a well rounded understanding of words as they are used in various contexts. Careful use of such material as this booklet presents will enable skillful teachers to add much to the effectiveness of their social studies instruction. Some minor slips and typographical errors will be corrected in the second printing.

GEORGE B. ENGBERG

High School
Robbinsdale, Minnesota

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